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CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS,
NEW YORK.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 22, 1888.

The Week.

THE Mills bill was passed by the House on the 21st of July. The Senate Finance Committee, which, according to the boast of its members, had not waited for the House to act, but had taken up the subject almost at the beginning of the session, did not report upon it until the 4th of October. Then it brought in an entirely new measure—a measure which purported to reduce the revenue by \$75,000,000 per annum. Fifteen days later, the Senate abandoned this measure for the present, by passing a resolution of adjournment. So far as it has done anything, it has gone directly counter to the instructions of the Republican party in national convention assembled. In the way of reducing the surplus, it has done nothing. On the contrary, it has refused to allow any other branch of the Government to do anything. When we look at the public necessities, and especially at the daily and pressing need of stopping the inflow of money into a Treasury already gorged with \$97,000,000, we are compelled to believe that the Republican majority of the Senate could not agree among themselves on the Finance Committee's bill, and that they resolved to adjourn in order to prevent an open disagreement.

Now let us take a glance at the situation which the Senate leaves behind. The surplus at the beginning of 1887 was \$55,258,701. It is now \$97,934,305, and is only kept down by large disbursements for bonds bought at high premiums. If the Senate had joined the syndicate of bond speculators, it could not have played into their hands to better advantage than it has done, for it has made known to them and to everybody that the Government must continue to buy bonds at prices fixed by the holders, under stress of a financial panic caused by sweeping into the vaults of the Treasury the money needed for moving the crops and carrying on the ordinary business of the country. The Secretary of the Treasury announced the other day that he had already bought the bulk of the bonds needed for the sinking fund of the present fiscal year, and Assistant Secretary Maynard has prepared a statement showing that, as matters now stand, the accruing surplus up to June 30, 1889, will be \$109,851,000 *admitted* to the amount now in hand, i. e., about \$207,000,000 next midsummer. The Republican Senators, in their endeavors to belittle the surplus, have counted all the extravagant appropriations of the present session as disbursements of the present year, when in fact but a small part of the river and harbor, public buildings, navy, and ordnance appropriations can be expended within the year.

Gen. Joseph R. Hawley is upon the stump for the Republicans in Connecticut, demanding

the Democrats as free traders for supporting a bill which places certain articles on the free list and reduces the duties on others. The only comment which seems called for upon such speeches from such a source is the republication of the following extract from a speech delivered by Joseph R. Hawley in the United States Senate on the 22d of January, 1883 (*Congressional Record*, Forty-seventh Congress, second session, Vol. XIV, Part II., page 1129):

"I speak for a great mass of men, capitalists and laborers, who are deeply and seriously involved in these matters of legislation. I belong to a people who believe in the theory of protection; who believe in its moderate and reasonable application; who desire a reduction of the tariff on many things, and who will gladly assent to many reductions on other matters, who will be very glad to reduce the duties on their manufactured goods if you will cheapen their raw material; who are ready to add very largely to the free list, but above all who reasonably ask the Congress of the United States for some sort of action. Their purposes are not concealed; their motives are not corrupt. A reduction of the tariff has been inevitable for the last four, five, six, or seven years. The people of Connecticut desire the question to be settled."

The general worthlessness of wages statistics as raw material for voters receives a fresh illustration in Senator Cullum's speech on the tariff on the 11th inst., for we find on the same page remarkable discrepancies between two separate statements of the wages of cotton operatives in the United States, both being presented by the Senator as correct. The first is a particularized statement showing twelve different kinds of service in cotton manufacturing and the wages thereof, and three in other mechanical labor employed about the mills. This is said to be "compiled from Volume 20, United States Census." The other is from the "Sixteenth Annual Report of Labor, by Mr. Carroll D. Wright," in which Mr. Wright does not deal with the particular branches, but lumps them together under the head "Cotton Goods." The two are presented in all joining columns, and refer to weekly wages. The average of the twelve cotton manufacturing employments in the first table is \$8.96 per week, in the second it is \$6.45 per week—a difference of 40 per cent. We judge that Mr. Wright's is the more nearly correct, because we observe that in the first of the two tables apprentices are set down as getting \$15.30 per week, while male spinners get only \$9.21 and dyers only \$6.51. Mr. Cullum gives us also these corresponding rates of wages in English cotton factories. It is worth remark that John Hall does not give apprentices so much advantage over skilled craftsmen as we do, although he holds them in higher estimation than dyers, paying them, according to this table, \$5.08, while he allows dyers only \$4.96 and strippers \$4.45. Male spinners, according to this table, get in England \$6.96 per week. Mr. Blaine, in his celebrated report on the cotton goods trade of the world, said that spinners in England were getting \$7.20 to \$8.40 master spinners

running as high as \$12, and in Massachusetts \$7.07 to \$10.30, the English working fifty-six hours per week and the American sixty hours. Upon the whole, we think that Mr. Cullum has added as much confusion to the wages question as anybody who has tried his hand at it.

It is not an agreeable task to expose Mr. Blaine's lies in his Western campaign. Nothing but dire necessity could induce us to touch such a Falstaffian mass, which grows more monstrous every day. For example, he said a few days ago that Secretary Fairchild had deposited a million dollars in Chairman Brice's bank, and that Mr. Brice was making \$50,000 per year out of the use of this money. It turned out that "Chairman Brice's bank" never had a dollar of Government deposits, although the Chase National Bank, in which he has a small interest, and whose president is a Republican, did have a deposit. Secretary Fairchild said in his speech on the 15th inst. that he never knew that Mr. Brice was a shareholder in the Chase National Bank, nor did he ever know what were the party affiliations of any bank officers or shareholders. The only rules were that no bank should have more than \$1,000,000, and that all should be treated alike provided they put up United States bonds as security. Everybody knows that this was a true statement. Mr. Blaine knows this as well as other people. Mr. Fairchild showed also that a bank having \$1,000,000 of such deposits, thus secured, instead of making \$50,000 per year out of the use of the money, made only \$5,650, against which was to be set the risk of depreciation of the security bonds, and that the banks were now voluntarily returning the money, because it was not, on the whole, worth their while to keep it.

At Chicago Mr. Blaine poured out another volley of untruths. Among others he said:

"But on a larger scale, and as between communities rather than individuals, look at what the Secretary has done. He has placed in the State of New York, in banks of his own selection, nearly thirteen millions of dollars of Treasury funds, and in this great Western body of States, comprising Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, and Nebraska, with double the population of New York, and in special need of ready money at this time to move the crops forward to market, the Secretary has given out (he over \$5,000,000, the rule of the Secretary apparently being that to a State of political importance to the Administration \$5,000,000 are given, and to seven States with double the population, that are hopelessly Republican, considerably less than half that amount. [Applause.] Such political guarding and personal sporting with funds of the common Treasury of the people of the United States has never been dreamed of before in this country."

The answer to this is plain to every man of sense. As there was no discrimination made between banks, it follows that if \$13,000,000 was deposited in banks in the State of New York and only \$5,000,000 in seven Western States, it was because the said seven States applied for only \$5,000,000, while the

one State applied for \$13,000,000. There is no mystery about this. The security required was the same in all cases. Banking capital is more abundant at the East than at the West. When Mr. Blaine made his great cackle about savings-bank deposits in Massachusetts and Great Britain, he omitted to mention that such deposits in Massachusetts were greater than in all the States west of the Alleghenies and south of the Potomac taken together, including California. The reason for this is that the Western people can generally make better use of their earnings than to put them in savings banks. In like manner, Western national banks can generally make better use of their money than to buy bonds to put up as security for Government deposits.

The *Boston Commercial Bulletin* makes the charge that the Mills bill is a sectional measure. "It removes," says the *Bulletin*, "the duty on Northern 'raw materials' and on Northern manufactured articles made from Southern 'raw materials,' but leaves the duty on Southern 'raw materials' either untouched or substantially protected." Well, we beg to inquire, is not wool a Southern raw material? According to the official returns of 1887, the sheep in the State of Texas were valued at \$9,281,890, while those of Ohio, the next largest, were valued at only \$8,888,430. Is not turpentine a Southern industry? Turpentine is on the free list in the Mills bill. Is not lumber a Southern product? The truth, as everybody knows, is, that the great bulk of our uncultivated timber is in the forests of the Southern States; and lumber is on the free list in the Mills bill. Is not jute a Southern raw material? Mr. McKinley and Judge Kelley told us so with great vehemence in the present Congress. Is not cotton-seed oil a Southern product? That also is put on the free list in the Mills bill. Is not hemp a Southern product? That also goes to the free list. The charge that the Mills bill is a sectional measure will not bear investigation.

In its agitation over the decision in the ribbon case, the *Tribune* has forgotten its cue, and directly contravenes that great foundation principle of protectionist organs and orators, that a tariff is not a tax; and that if it be a tax, it is paid, not by the consumers in this country, but by the foreigner who produces the goods imported. Says the *Tribune*:

"It is represented that duties amounting to more than \$7,000,000 will have to be refunded by the United States to importers if the decision in the ribbon case is sustained by the court of last resort. Every dollar of this \$7,000,000, more or less, will go into the pockets of importers, for the ribbons have been sold to consumers at prices based upon the duty which the law was intended to impose. Nobody imagines that the importers, if they get the \$7,000,000 out of the Government, will refund the money to the purchasers of ribbons, if indeed that were possible."

We put in italics, as in rosemary, for remembrance, the *Tribune's* incautious admission that in this single matter of ribbons the sum of \$7,000,000 has been paid, not by

foreigners, but by the "consumers" in the United States, through increased "prices based upon the duty which the law was intended to impose."

The *Times* publishes interviews with members of the Faculty of Cornell University, which show that the President and thirty-four of the forty-four professors will vote for Cleveland. "It is a significant sign," says one of them, "to see the majority of our earnest thinkers and students, who were with the Republican party heart and soul in all questions relating to slavery, deserting that party in a body on the question of protection." In the past it has been the boast of the Republican party that the intelligence of the country was with it. Now it sneers at educated men, while it tries to bully and bribe poor and ignorant voters into its support.

We believe it is strictly accurate to say that Mr. Henry C. Lea of Philadelphia, whose attack on the President in the *Independent* we notice elsewhere, is the only man of his kind and standing, whether Mugwump or Democrat, in the Eastern States, who has gone over to the Republican camp in the present contest, after having been driven out of it by Blaineism in 1884. Against this solitary desertion of a man of talent, cultivation, and character may be set fully a score of open adhesions to Cleveland from the Republican ranks, by authors, professors, ministers, journalists of greater or less distinction. In fact, there is nothing more remarkable in the present canvass than the rapid transfer of intelligence from the Republican to the Democratic side, and the rapid transformation of the Republicans into the party of selfishness, ignorance, and brute force, such as the Democrats were before the war. The Republicans resist the revision of the tariff, as the Democrats resisted the abolition or restriction of slavery, simply and avowedly because the few think they can make more money by keeping things as they are. They appeal to the ignorant to resist it because it will bring them into competition with foreign "pauper labor," just as the Irish used to be urged to mob the anti-slavery men in order to keep "the niggers" from coming North to take away their work. They distribute the forged extracts and quotations, just as the pro-slavery newspapers used to put ferocious lies into the mouths of anti-slavery men and women. How like the charge that "Cleveland is the English candidate" is to the old pro-slavery "corker," "Do you want your daughter to marry a nigger?"

That little value is to be attached to any of the current estimates as to how men are going to vote this year, is strikingly illustrated by the claim of the Republican managers in Indiana that "the returns show that there are 65,000 young men in Indiana who will be eligible to vote for Presidential candidates for the first time this year," and that a considerable majority of these new voters will support Harrison. The "young men who will

be eligible to vote for Presidential candidates for the first time this year" are those twenty-one, twenty-two, twenty-three, and twenty-four years old, and a glance at the census of 1880 would have shown these sapient managers that the number of native white males in Indiana twenty-one, twenty-two, twenty-three, and twenty-four years old in 1880 was far more than 65,000—no less indeed than 79,214; while the increase of population during the interval would carry the number of such young men at the present time considerably above 80,000. The Republican managers are probably no nearer right in their guess that a majority of these new voters are going to support Harrison. An army twice as large as that in Indiana has attained the voting age in New York State. The census of 1880 showed 157,087 native white males in this State twenty-one, twenty-two, twenty-three, and twenty-four years old, and the increase of population since 1880 must make the number considerably larger now. Here is a body of voters considerably larger than the whole number who went to the polls four years ago in both New Hampshire and Vermont, who have no record whatever in national politics. More than three-fourths were born after the close of the war, and have no associations with the issues of the slavery period. If a majority of them vote for Cleveland, he is certain to carry New York.

A lithographed copy of a letter from one John Hess, an English dealer in shoes, to somebody in this country, saying that he (Hess) has forwarded a sample of children's shoe, which he would like to export to the United States if it can be done at the price named (twenty-seven shillings per dozen), is being circulated in the shoe factories along the Hudson River, together with the startling information that the London price per pair is only 56 cents, while it costs 65 cents to make the same article here. This difference of 9 cents, says the circular accompanying the letter, "must fall on the wage-earner." As the Mills bill does not make any change in the tariff on boots and shoes, and as we export these articles in considerable quantities to the British colonies, in competition with Mr. John Hess and others, the value of the lithograph to any intelligent mind is nil. But such things are not addressed to intelligent minds. They are raw material for the "cyclone of fear" which has not yet come. But could anything be more disastrous to the city of New York than the idea, if it could ever be put in practice, that foreign trade is an injury to the country? This is what the circulators of this lithograph mean. They know that workingmen do not understand the petty details about the cost of children's shoes, about lastings, findings, nails, thread, trimmings, boxes, etc., but they think that workingmen will be frightened by a simple letter from an English merchant, sending a sample of his goods to this country to see if there is a market for them. In other words, they think that workingmen are afraid of foreign commerce or can be made afraid of it by a

facsimile of a letter. It is well to remind the workmen of New York that the foreign commerce which passed into and through this city in the year 1887 (imports and exports) amounted to \$763,000,000, and that any political party which should succeed in driving it away, would take the bread out of the mouths of one-half of the people who now find their living here.

Mr. Theodore Roosevelt has issued an "appeal" in behalf of the Republican candidate for Mayor, in which he says that if he had himself polled the full Republican vote when he was a candidate in 1886, he would have been elected by 6,000 plurality. He begs Republicans to be loyal to Col. Erhardt for this reason. Mr. Roosevelt's view of his own candidacy appears to be somewhat different from the one which he took shortly after his defeat. It will be remembered that he went abroad almost immediately. He was met in London, on November 27, 1886, by a *World* correspondent, with whom he talked freely; and in the course of his talk, after "paying a high tribute to the honesty and ability of Mr. Hewitt," said that "he was compelled to enter the race against Mr. Hewitt because, since he was selected, it was necessary that he (Roosevelt) should make a sacrifice for the sake of maintaining the party organization." One sacrifice that he made was the swallowing of his formerly emphatically expressed conviction that partisan considerations should not be allowed to enter into municipal elections. He ran in 1886, not because he expected to be elected, but to "maintain the party organization." That is what Col. Erhardt is running for now; and Mr. Roosevelt's appeal, like his candidacy, is a sacrifice in the interest of that tremendous public necessity.

The decision of Judge Lawrence in the Tilden will case, if sustained by the Court of Appeals, will put the city of New York in possession of the best public library in the world. Of course, there are many greater and more valuable libraries than any that can now be collected by any sum of money whatsoever, but the great libraries, like the Bodleian, the British Museum, the National Library at Paris, the German university collections, and the Library of Congress are not public libraries in the technical sense; they are not libraries from which every citizen can draw books and take them home to read. Nor is the Astor Library such an institution, still less the Lenox Library. The Tilden Library, as we understand the bequest, is to be in the fullest sense a library of the people. In this respect the benefaction is unique and unparalleled. The only things approaching it are the Newberry Library at Chicago, not yet fully established, and the Boston Public Library, an old and admirably conducted institution, which might well serve as a model for the Tilden Library when the trustees find themselves free to begin their work. The Tilden bequest is not only the foundation of the greatest public library in the world thus far, but it is the greatest benefaction that the city

of New York or any American city has ever received. We do not recall any bequest to a municipality which can be compared with it, unless that of the Duke of Brunswick to the city of Geneva may equal it in amount. Every citizen of the Empire State will be proud of this noble monument of a great man when the intentions of the donor shall have been realized, and every one, whether his station be high or low, will be a partaker of the blessings which he intended to distribute.

The London *Economist* has been keeping a very sharp eye on the French copper syndicate. In its issue of October 6 it shows that the statistical position is very bad for the syndicate. The supplies of copper have gained on the demand every month since November, 1887. The increase of supply over demand during the year has been 45,580 tons, and the stock on hand is now between 100,000 and 120,000 tons. The *Economist* discusses the "claim" of the syndicate that the supplies in the hands of manufacturers and all the old scrap copper that was available have now been worked off, and hence that there will soon be a reduction of the stock on hand. This position is considered fallacious for the reason that it makes no account of the abnormal supply from the mines stimulated by the increased price, the opening of new mines, or the lessening of demand consequent upon the high price maintained by the syndicate. The higher rates for money are also mentioned as an element of cost in carrying a stock in which \$35,000,000 to \$40,000,000 are now locked up. In order to restrict the output of the mines by 25 per cent. the syndicate have offered to advance the price of copper to the producers sufficiently to compensate them for the reduced output. But if this could be done without still further lessening the bonafide consumption, it would operate still further to bring new mines into the field or to put new activity into old and abandoned ones. The *Economist's* conclusion is, that "the position of the syndicate is extremely doubtful, although it is impossible to say when the inevitable collapse is likely to happen. It may occur as suddenly as the collapse in the case of tin, or it may be postponed for months. But the end is certain."

Alexandre Dumas has been writing a preface to a book by Baron de Vaux on *Le Sport*, and a very amusing and characteristic discussion it is, for the only branch of the "sport" he treats is duelling, and this he makes a peg on which to hang wonderful stories (which recall the "Voyages en Suisse" of forty years ago) of feats of muscular strength of both his father and grandfather. His father was such a wonderful shot that the Government had to withdraw the permission given him to shoot in the forest of Compiègne, in order to prevent the total extirpation of the game. He was such an athlete that when a cabman on a rainy night refused to carry him for the legal fare, he seized him, and put him on the box by main force. When a gigantic conductor of a diligence was in-

sistent to the passengers, he kept knocking him down until he cried for quarter. His grandfather, the General, was equally wonderful on horseback. He would ride a horse into a gymnasium, take hold of the two rings, and raise himself up, lifting the horse also between his legs. In one of his fights with the Austrians, he charged twenty men, his bridle reins between his teeth, and a pistol in each hand. He killed two men with the pistol shots, then threw the pistols away, and killed one man and wounded eight with his sabre. The rest naturally took to their heels. In fact, he sabred the Austrians so much that they called him "The Black Devil." On another occasion, a young man having behaved impudently to him at the opera, he threw him out of a box into the orchestra stalls. The grandson makes some fun of the present harmless style of French duelling, and thinks it might be suppressed by enacting as follows: "Duelling is lawful, but if any duel does not result in the death of one of the two combatants, or in a wound, disabling the person receiving it for both business and pleasure during a period of one month at least, the said combatants shall be flogged jointly and severally to a fine of 10,000 francs, and imprisonment for two years." But the real, sanguinary duel he believes in, because it enables men to satisfy the passion of hatred, which he says is as "much a part of the human soul as love."

Dumas' ridicule of the present style of French duelling appears to have hurt the feelings of M. Albert Wolff, the well-known Parisian journalist, and his comments in the *Figaro* that duels are not so harmless as they seem, and that the legislation proposed by Dumas would not surprise them. He shows, in the first place, that it would be very unfair to fine or imprison duellists for not killing each other, because some of the most desperate duels end harmlessly, owing to the skill of the combatants. He gives cases in support of his thesis. Moreover, duels do end fatally with reasonable frequency. Did not Vigoder kill Courty and Richard kill Massas, and was not Labrousse run through the body by Melville and was not Roques of the *Courrier Français* put to bed for one month by a sword-thrust, just when everybody supposed the combat ended? Moreover, the pistol is not so harmless either as M. Dumas would have us believe. Was not Potter put to bed for two months by a ball from Carmona, and the painter Dupuis killed outright? And does not Meyer carry a ball in his abdomen, which kept him on his back for several months, and does not Gaston Jollivet carry to this day the marks of a ball which came near killing him? And was not Wolff himself present at a duel where one of the combatants, having fired his shot, stood waiting for his adversary's ball for fully a minute, but luckily was only hit in the coat collar? The duel, in these times, when "people have so little respect for each other," Wolff thinks the only protection for one's personal dignity, and it is as fatal and bloody as any sensible man need desire, M. Dumas to the contrary notwithstanding.

A BARREN "ARRAIGNMENT."

MR. HENRY C. LEA of Philadelphia, a faithful and devoted friend of civil-service reform, but also a faithful, devoted friend of our present tariff, has a scathing article in the last *Independent* on Mr. Cleveland's record as a civil-service reformer. He sums up his charges as follows:

"Mr. Cleveland was elected under the pledge that he would carry out the reform. In place of that he has dealt it a blow which, though not mortal, will require years of earnest effort to recover from; for the prostitution of patronage in return for Congressional and other support has taken fresh root and more sturdy life than ever. His reelection would signify the public acquiescence in this. It would mean that the people at large care nothing for reform; that they are satisfied to have political bosses foist their henchmen into office; that patronage is still, as of old, to be wrangled for between Congressional office-brokers; that office is still to be the coin in which to pay political debts and gain the service of political *condottieri*; that the conduct of public business is a secondary consideration, and that the Civil-Service Commission may remain as a convenient toy to amuse infantile reformers."

If the question which Mr. Lea is presenting to the voters were, "Shall we reflect Mr. Cleveland, or go without a President for a few years, until we find one whom we can trust with the distribution of the patronage?" or if the voters were a great debating club, and the question for the day was whether Cleveland had fulfilled his pledges, or whether he had reformed the civil service, or whether he was a truly good or only a moderately good man, we confess Mr. Lea's arguments, or rather his "arraignment," would make considerable impression on us.

But the business before the voters is not academical discussion. It is political action. They are not called on to decide simply whether Mr. Cleveland has been all they expected him to be, but whether he is a better man, all things considered, for the place of President of the United States than Mr. Harrison. Consequently, nobody who sets before us, as Mr. Lea does, Cleveland's shortcomings, without telling us what he expects of Harrison, can be said to have contributed anything useful to the present controversy. Not one allusion to Harrison's record as a civil service reformer does he make. Not one particle of information does he offer the wretched Mugwumps as to what use Harrison and his followers will make of the offices in case they get into power. Mr. Lea's diatribe, in fact, reminds us of a man who, finding a friend "in a hole," should stand on the edge, minutely describing to him the hole itself and all the horrors of his situation, but should carefully refrain from telling him how to escape, or offering him any aid in doing so.

It is our painful duty—we hate to be in the attitude of setting right before the public a man whom we respect so much as we respect Mr. Lea—to supply some of that information to civil-service reformers about the choice they have to make on the 6th of November which Mr. Lea has thought fit to withhold.

This choice lies between Cleveland and Harrison. Not to elect Cleveland is to elect Harrison. To "make an example of Cleveland" is to elect Harrison. Mr. Lea's simile—"When a farmer nails a chicken-hawk to

his barn-door, he not only gets rid of a plunderer, but he gives a wholesome warning to its fellows"—is not apposite, because in the present case it is proposed to give another chicken-hawk the run of the barnyard. What kind of chicken-hawk is this other? That is the question. Let us have some light on it. We must remember, in the first place, that Gen. Harrison is not a new man in public life. He has been in the Senate six years, and during that period it is a matter of notoriety that the Capitol contained no more gluttonous office-seeker. One of the Cabinet jokes during Garfield's short term was that Blaine said "Harrison had asked for thirteen more first-class missions than there were." What Harrison's views were as to the use and abuse of the civil service were indeed sufficiently set forth by him in his letter of April 3, 1883, to Mr. N. Filbeck, touching the appointment of a revenue collector in Indiana. He said, in answer to the assertion that the appointment of a certain Carter had been made to oblige a certain Pierce, "I desire to say to you, this is not true. The appointment is made by me alone upon what seems to be the weight of [Republican] influence in the district." In other words, he has been an avowed spoilsman, pure and simple. In his letter of acceptance he approves of the Civil-Service Law, which we believe Cleveland has, on the whole, faithfully executed, and makes exactly the kind of promises Cleveland made as to appointments not covered by the law, but adds significantly: "I know the practical difficulties attending the attempt to apply the spirit of the civil-service rules to all appointments and removals. It will, however, be my sincere purpose, if elected, to advance the reform." We believe he does know these practical difficulties much better than Cleveland did when he took office, for he has been one of the difficulties himself; but there is in neither his career nor his character the smallest reason for supposing that he would make half the battle against them that Cleveland has done.

Nor is there anything in the attitude of his party in this canvass to warrant the belief that he, a weaker man than Cleveland, would have even as much help in meeting these difficulties as Cleveland has had. There is not in the Republican party a single prominent politician in good standing who can be called a warm advocate of the reform. More than this, there is not among the Republican newspapers a single journal of weight or prominence whose tone towards the reform is not one of more or less veiled derision, or which ever seeks to make it a pressing or important question. The contrast between what Cleveland's experience in these particulars has been and what Harrison's would be, is, indeed, very great. In this canvass, on the Republican side civil-service reform plays no part whatever, and no reference is ever made to it except for the purpose of illustrating what is said to be Cleveland's perfidy and hypocrisy. In the report on the civil-service abuses made by Senator Hale's Committee, there is no condemnation of

these abuses on behalf of the public service. They are denounced simply as evidences of the President's bad faith. In fact, one finds nowhere, in looking over the field, the trace of a belief among leading Republicans that his delinquencies would be in the least degree culpable if he had not promised to abstain from them. This position was boldly taken by leading Republican Senators, at the beginning of his term, in the debate over "the papers," and has never been receded from. Moreover, the openly manifested contempt for the reform has even been carried so far as to cover the numerous Republicans who, contrary to all precedent since Jackson's day, have remained in office under the present Administration. They are actually spoken of as black sheep for retaining their places.

For all these reasons, and a great many others which we cannot for want of space produce here, we do not hesitate to express our belief, while admitting to the fullest extent the President's shortcomings, that his defeat by Gen. Harrison would be the signal for a "clean sweep" which, for promptness, completeness, and ruthlessness, has not been equalled since the outbreak of the war; that even the "painful inch" which we have gained during the past four years would be totally lost, and that the victory would be taken as a license to put the reform of the civil service out of sight during the present generation, and as a triumph over the reformers even more than over the Democrats.

SAVING TRUTHS FOR YOUNG POLITICIANS.

MR. MOORFIELD STOREY of Boston has an interesting article in the *Harvard Monthly*, on politics as a career and as a duty. Mr. Storey is abundantly competent to speak to young men on this question, because he has been a faithful observer of politics and politicians, and a faithful participator in political controversies, ever since he got his first taste of politics thirty years ago as the private secretary of Charles Sumner. He is now a leading member of the Boston bar, and has, from an uncompromising Radical Republican, become, by a process now very familiar, an uncompromising Mugwump; consequently he may safely be said to speak with knowledge on the question now presenting itself to so many educated young Americans, In what manner can I best promote the purity and efficiency of the American Government?

To many young men, with a taste for politics, and with a fair facility with the tongue or pen, the answer to this will seem simple enough. Nine out of ten of them will say that if they wish to make their abilities useful to the country in legislation or administration, they must seek to get themselves elected to office; that it is only in office that a man can make himself directly felt in the work of government; and that, as office can only be obtained through party service, they must, above all things, cultivate fidelity to party. This class, however, Mr. Storey puts through a terrible sifting process, for he tells all young men

who wish to call their souls their own, and give the country honest work, that they must not think of taking an elective office if they are obliged to depend on the salary for a livelihood. The temptations to which mere love of popularity and mere love of place and power expose the politician in a country of universal suffrage, are great enough in all conscience. It is not every character which is capable of resisting them; in fact, most men in public life, in a greater or less degree, yield to them. But from the man whose bread and butter, and those of his wife and children, are dependent on his getting a renomination, and whose renomination depends on his pleasing his local managers, independence and honesty are not to be expected. The strain is too great for ordinary virtue. There is hardly anything which even good men will not, in the last resort, surrender for a support. Therefore Mr. Storey excludes from his audience all young men who go into politics for revenue only. Concerning them, as the poet says, he argues not, but makes a note of them and passes them by.

After they are gone, there remains a certain number, which of late years has been increasing, of young men of inherited private fortunes, greater or less in amount, who, finding themselves relieved from the necessity of daily toil, and having a strong taste for public life, and being animated by more or less patriotic fervor, seek in politics a field for their ability and energy. These, largely we believe under the influence of the English tradition, can rarely persuade themselves that they are really "in politics" or really exerting an influence on the Government of their country, unless they are in possession of some sort of elective office, and especially a seat in some legislative body. That they are correct in this view, all practical politicians whom they consult are sure to impress on them. They accordingly take at once, as the first step in their career, to cultivating party loyalty and rendering party service by close attention to the nominating process, beginning with the primaries and ending with the conventions, by sinking individual views and preferences, and by the elimination from their mental habits of everything which makes concession to other people hard or distasteful. After the requisite amount of such training and service, and the payment of a certain sum of money, a nomination is pretty sure to come to a well-to-do young man in either of our great parties; and if he has connected himself, as he is pretty sure to have done, with the one which is the stronger in his locality, the election follows as a matter of course. There have been several conspicuous instances among us of late years of political careers begun in this way, and of the conversion of promising political young philosophers into very unpromising political partisans, through the belief that to make a creditable political career in this country you must, no matter what your talents or acquirements may be, hold office; and that without office, no matter what your talents or acquirements may be, you can have no influence on the march of public affairs.

It is to the victims of this which we may in some cases call soul-destroying delusion, that Mr. Storey mainly addresses himself. They are lured to their moral and political ruin by inattention to the most striking and in some ways most important political phenomenon of our time, the gradual decline of legislators in real power and influence, and the gradual withdrawal from them of all discretion in dealing with legislative problems, and of all share in moulding the opinions which are finally embodied in laws. We are far from saying that an educated young man does wrong in seeking a seat in Congress or the Legislature, or may not render the State good service while there. What we say is, that an educated young man who believes he will increase the weight or influence in affairs which his talents and character give him by getting an office, and makes the smallest sacrifice of conviction or independence in order to get it and keep it, commits a great mistake. On the contrary, in order to get the office, he in nine cases out of ten sacrifices everything which prevents the office from being a very degraded form of slavery.

Only very exceptional men, even in our day, stay in office through a party nomination without being ready, whenever called on, to defend all party doctrines and party acts. The more a party nominee plumes himself on his character, his culture, or his independence, the more eager will the managers be to put him on the stump as an apologist; and the first time he opens his mouth in obedience to their demands his moral value vanishes. Not only does his peculiar influence perish in the public eye the minute he proclaims himself a partisan, but his future becomes as insecure as that of the Christian gentleman who has paid his first instalment to a blackmailer. To the plain people whom he dazzled with his "culture" he becomes simply a useful charlatan, while to the class in which he was bred, and which he has deserted, he is simply a man who has sold himself without the wretched plea of necessity. It is to the unfortunates who feel tempted to tread this path of shame and failure that Mr. Storey addresses himself. May his remarks be blest to them! They are but an expression of the great saving truth, that "A man's a man for a' that."

THE EVOLUTION OF THE WAGES ARGUMENT.

The most amusing thing about the present campaign has been to watch the protectionists storm one another's positions. Without a leader, and marching under heterogeneous banners, hardly a battery has been planted but that it has presently been found to be sending its shells into some section of the allied forces. It has now come to be recognized that the only munition that can safely be used is the pauper-labor bomb, which serves to fill the air with dust and scare such laborers as still believe that American wages are not really earned, but are charitably increased by a slice from capital's share of the product of our industries.

Yet this wages argument, though endorsed

by the united intellect of living protectionist leaders, appears almost ludicrously strange when contrasted with the utterances of the protectionist fathers. During the first fifty years of our national history such an argument was never thought of. Then it was said: "We must have protection in spite of our high wages." Only within the last generation was the claim put forth that "We must have protection because of high wages." And not until the infant industry cry had degenerated into a scule absurdity did misrepresentation take the place of argument, and protectionists begin their present claimer, that "We have high wages because we have protection." The evolution is so remarkable that it is worth while to examine more closely the process.

Before the Declaration of Independence the chief industrial grievance of the colonists was the refusal of Great Britain to grant them free trade. Our young manufactures, except those of iron, were repressed by law in order that we might be the customers of the British factories, and our trade with other nations was hampered and forbidden in order that British merchants might retain a profitable monopoly. The colonists protested against these restrictions because they prevented them from buying goods cheap, and there were at that time no powerful interests which would applaud the absurdity that it is a blessing to have goods dear. When therefore independence had been won, and the demand arose for a moderate temporary protection for infant manufactures, nothing would have been more absurd than for protectionists to have claimed that past protection was the cause of the difference between American and European wages. Yet the difference then was even more marked than it is to-day. Adam Smith, the ablest English champion of the Americans in their protest against monopolistic restrictions, writing in 1776, described American wages as follows (Book I, chapter viii):

"England is certainly in the present time a much richer country than any part of North America. The wages of labor, however, are much higher in North America than in any part of England. In the province of New York, common laborers earn three shillings and sixpence currency, equal to two shillings sterling a day. Ship carpenters ten shillings and sixpence currency, with a pint of rum worth sixpence sterling, equal in all to six shillings and sixpence sterling. . . . The price of provisions is everywhere in North America much lower than in England. . . . If the money price of labor be higher, therefore, than it is anywhere in the mother country, the real command of the necessaries and conveniences of life which it conveys to the laborer must be higher in a still greater proportion."

Those who have doubted the correctness of Adam Smith's conclusions have never doubted the correctness of his observations.

This great contrast in wages being everywhere admitted, it was naturally used by the free traders as one of the arguments against prematurely forcing American labor into less productive channels. The protectionist reply to this received its best statement in Henry Clay's great tariff speech of 1824. Mr. Clay said (Speeches, vol. I, p. 266):

"The fundamental error of the gentleman from Virginia, and of the school to which he belongs, in deducing from our sparse population our unfitness for the introduction of the arts,

consists in their not sufficiently weighing the importance of the power of machinery.

In former times, when but little comparative use was made of machinery, manual labor and the price of wages were circumstances of the greatest consideration. But it is far otherwise in these latter times. Such are the improvements and the perfection of machinery that, in analyzing the compound value of many fabrics, the element of natural labor is so inconsiderable as almost to escape detection."

Again (p. 279):

"In considering the fitness of a nation for the establishment of manufactures, we must no longer limit our views to the state of its population and the price of wages. All circumstances must be regarded, of which that is, perhaps, the least important. Capital, ingenuity in the construction and adroitness in the use of machinery, and the cheapness of the raw materials are those which deserve the greatest consideration. All these circumstances (except that of capital, of which there is no deficiency), exist in our country in an eminent degree, and more than counterbalance the disadvantage, if it really exists, of the lower wages of labor in Great Britain."

At the time Clay said this, "all these circumstances" did not exist anywhere in America to the degree which they exist even in Nebraska and Dakota to-day. The development of labor-saving machinery which the last generation has witnessed was in his day undreamed of. The dearth of capital, owing to its scarcity; the impossibility of manufacturing on a large scale, owing to the sparse population; and the ability of labor to do better by utilizing our bountiful natural resources—all placed the East of that day on a level with the extreme West of our own. But in the Eastern States to-day, when machinery has reached its marvellous development, when capital is so cheap that the State of Ohio borrows on almost precisely the same terms as the Government of Great Britain, when the cheapest transportation in the world makes manufacture on the largest scale possible, America does possess every one of Clay's more than counterbalancing advantages except cheap raw materials, and this advantage is prevented only by the useless, wasteful, and absurd taxes which the Senate bill would retain upon them. Unless Mr. Clay's followers are willing to assert that his great argument of 1824 was free-trade theorizing, they must admit that it is to-day an unanswerable argument, not only for tariff reform, but for tariff abolition.

Mr. Clay did exaggerate,—no man can avoid it who attempts to defend an absurdity; but his exaggeration in asserting that, in analyzing the value of manufactured goods the "element of natural labor is so inconsiderable as almost to escape detection," is gentle and timid compared with the representation of the Senate Committee on Finance that the greater expense of this element in America demands a tariff of 41 per cent. on the total value of factory goods. If American economic history demonstrates anything, it demonstrates that American labor, by its energy and capacity, by its "ingenuity in the construction and adroitness in the use of machinery," in spite of higher wages, can produce the cheapest farm and mine products in the world, can build the cheapest houses in the world, can furnish by far the cheapest railway service in the world, and, wherever 40 per cent. tariffs on raw material and machinery do not bar the way, can also lead the

world in the production of cheap manufactures.

But if the argument that the high wages in our factories necessitate the perpetuation of an inordinate tariff be founded on misrepresentation, the other argument, that our high wages have been caused by this inordinate tariff, is based upon falsification—the falsification of the most salient fact in our economic history. The wages in American industries always and necessarily corresponded with the value of the products. The laboring class never asked for the protective tariff, and from the beginning until now their only connection with it has been that they have paid the bulk of the millions every year collected. In latter times it has indeed been urged that the money is eventually spent in the employment of labor; but just as much labor would always have been employed if the laborers had been permitted to spend it themselves.

THE TARIFF ON BOOKS.

THE Mills bill, as it was passed by the House of Representatives, exempts from duty "Bibles, books, and pamphlets printed in other languages than English, AND books and pamphlets, and all publications of foreign Governments, and publications of foreign societies, historical or scientific, printed for gratuitous distribution." The Senate Committee on Finance, in their report (No. 2332) submitted October 4, to accompany their substitute for the Mills bill, point to this clause as illustrating one of the numerous inconsistencies which they pretend to have discovered in the latter bill, and claim that according to its provisions "Bibles and other books in foreign languages, printed for gratuitous distribution, are free; while Bibles and other books in foreign languages, if printed for sale, are dutiable at 25 per cent. ad valorem." A reference to the paragraph, as printed above, will show that no such construction of it is tenable, and that the words "printed for gratuitous distribution" do not apply to the first phrase at all, but refer only to the publications of foreign Governments and foreign societies; while the latter publications, on the other hand, are not qualified by the words "printed in other languages than English."

The liberality of the House in proposing to allow citizens of the United States to accept free of tax such publications as were supplied to them without cost by the generosity of foreigners, did not seem excessive. Indeed, to many of our citizens that seems a peculiarly oppressive tax which is levied by their own Government upon the knowledge which is gratuitously furnished to them by foreign institutions. A foreign Government or a foreign society offers the American citizen, without a penny of cost, books which may contain knowledge of the highest value to him; but his own Government refuses to deliver them to him until it has first set an imaginary price upon them for the purpose of taxing him one-quarter of that amount. This does seem a somewhat remarkable way in which to encourage

the spread of knowledge among our people. But to the Senate Committee it appears reasonable enough, apparently; at least they have taken pains to strike out that portion of the paragraph in the Mills bill which attempted to abolish this state of things; and the clause has been pared down to simple permission of the free importation of "books and pamphlets printed exclusively in languages other than English." Even an untaxed Bible, when printed in English, is not endurable to the Senate Committee.

During the discussions in the Senate upon the International Copyright Bill, a Republican Senator asserted that it was the "ardent hope and expectation" of his party that the day might never come when the duties should be taken off of books. Nevertheless, we believe that the rapid approach of that day is inevitable, and that it may safely be predicted that even fifty years hence it will be a matter of astonishment and incredulity that a Senator, supposed to represent that portion of our country which boasts the greatest intellectual advancement, should have ventured to announce that the political party which claimed to embrace the best intellect of this country was possessed, in the year 1888, of an "ardent hope and expectation" that the time would never come for the abolition of a most reprehensible fraud, affecting the highest interests of the people. For what can be more blamable upon the part of a Government with an overflowing treasury than to check, by the interposition of a heavy tax, the influx of the means of moral and intellectual advancement? During these same discussions upon the Copyright Bill, the following dialogue took place in the Senate Chamber:

"Mr. Beck—The object of this bill, I understand, is to disseminate knowledge among men?"

"Mr. Chace—Certainly, to encourage it."

"Mr. Beck—Now, why not allow our own people to obtain, in the cheapest way they can, the product of the brains of foreigners? In other words, if we are to help our own people, and at the same time allow the people of all foreign countries to have the reward of their own genius and their own talents, why not have free trade as regards books among all countries? Then our people would get the cheapest, and everybody would be protected at home and abroad, and the people would get the benefit. That would be fair all around, would it not?"

"Mr. Chace—I would say to the Senator that that is a very Utopian idea. If we could get the foreign countries to do it, perhaps we might; but they do not do it, and they will not do it."

"Mr. Beck—Suppose we make the offer to them to bring their books in free for our people if they will do the same thing, and they would jump at it, I think."

Senator Beck's argument is incontrovertible, therefore his proposal is "Utopian." But the Senator from Rhode Island is mistaken in supposing that the other nations of the world are as short-sighted as the United States in this direction. Even the strongest "protective" States of Europe are too intelligent to put a tax upon the instruments by which their people are to grow in intelligence and culture; and for the few civilized countries of the world which do tax foreign books, the excuse can be made that they are struggling

with bankrupt exchequers—an excuse which the United States cannot plead. An examination of the tariff laws of the world (a few for countries of minor importance not being available), shows that the following countries charge no import duty whatever upon books of any kind: Austria Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Netherlands, Norway, Rumania, Turkey, Barbados, Bermuda, Ceylon, Corea, Ecuador, Hawaiian Islands, Honduras, India, Natal, Newfoundland, New South Wales, Nicaragua, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and western Australia. To this list there might justly be added some other countries; for example, Sweden, where, according to the new tariff law of July 18, going into effect on January 1, 1889, all books are admitted free of duty except Bibles and hymn-books when bound abroad. Upon the latter a charge of 13½ to 53 cents per kilo is made, according to the kind of binding. In Portugal also all books are free but such as are printed abroad in the Portuguese language (except when by Portuguese authors resident abroad), and these pay a duty of 10½ cents per kilo. The same rule holds in Russia, all foreign books being admitted free, but unbound Russian books (when printed abroad) paying \$1.50 per pood (equal to thirty-six pounds), and when bound \$2.25 for the same weight. In Chili all books are freely admitted, except such as contain engravings, upon which the same charge seems to be made as would be made on the engravings, viz., 35 per cent. ad valorem. New Zealand appears to admit books without charge, except in the case of one class called "gift books," which pays 15 per cent. ad valorem. In Italy unbound foreign books are admitted free, but when bound, duty is charged at the rate of \$3.86 per 100 kilos, while unbound books in the Italian language only pay the same duty as would be charged upon the paper upon which they are printed, viz., \$2.90 per 100 kilos. All unbound books relating to the sciences, arts, and industries are admitted without charge into Venezuela, as well as newspapers and periodicals; but bound books are charged \$6.64 and upwards for each 100 pounds weight, according to the quality of the binding.

Twenty-eight States, therefore, including most of the great nations of the world, have absolutely free trade in books, while seven others only charge duties upon exceptional kinds of books. It should be borne in mind that the great bulk of foreign books are sold to the reader unbound, and that the exportation, therefore, of bound editions would be exceptional, and they would consist of special classes of books, such as school-books or holiday volumes. This is a very fair foundation for Senator Beck's Utopian idea. It is, indeed, altogether unlikely that any single nation in the world would reject a proposition coming from the United States for reciprocal free trade in books.

Of the countries which distinctly advocate a duty on books, but two belong to Europe, namely, Spain and Switzerland. The former charges \$8.10 per 100 kilos upon works printed in the Spanish language and \$1.93

per 100 kilos upon books in foreign languages; while the latter country makes a uniform charge of 19.3 cents for each quintal of weight. The South American and Central American States for the most part charge duties upon books as follows: Argentine Republic, from 45 cents to \$1 per kilo; Brazil, 32 to 62 cents per pound, according to binding; Mexico, 3 cents to \$1.20 per kilo, depending on the material used in binding; Peru 10 per cent. ad valorem; San Salvador 5 per cent. ad valorem; United States of Colombia 20 cents per kilo; Uruguay about 65 cents per kilo. Hayti makes a specific charge of from 3 to 20 cents per volume on bound books, according to size, reducing the amounts one-half if the works are unbound. Classical books and school books, however, are admitted free. Porto Rico charges from \$5.40 to \$6.90 per 100 kilos, depending upon the country from which the importation is made. In Canada the usual duty is 15 per cent. ad valorem, but upon Bibles, prayer and hymn books only 5 per cent. is charged, while the free list includes all books printed more than seven years, all publications of Governments or by scientific societies, and books prepared for the deaf and dumb and the blind. It may be remarked, concerning the various British colonies, that some twenty years ago they passed laws establishing charges upon imported foreign reprints of British copyright books, not as tariff taxes, but as a method for collecting, upon behalf of the British author, the copyright royalty. Such of these laws as had not been repealed by later copyright statutes were abrogated when Great Britain, on behalf of her colonies, joined the International Copyright Union.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE RELIGIOUS NOVEL.

THE reported exclusion from the Ipswich (Eng.) Library of 'Robert Elsmere,' on the ground of its being a "dangerous book," in the eyes of the trustees, suggests many inferences as to the mental condition of those gentlemen. Any that they might consider uncomplimentary we have no purpose to mention, being bent only, for the present, on examining the idea upon which their action must have been largely based—the idea, namely, that the novel is a highly effective instrument of religious propaganda. We can only hazard a guess at the contents of the library over which such faithful guardians are set, but there is little risk in assuming that they have admitted into it the works of Darwin, possibly some specimens of historical criticism as applied to the Biblical documents, very likely some volumes of essays on social reform and allied topics. In fact, the larger part of the raw material worked up in 'Robert Elsmere,' in kind at least, may probably be found—and very little the worse for wear, too—on the shelves of the Ipswich institution. At any rate, it is common for those who stand sentinel over the reading of the youthful mind to let a treatise pass unchallenged, though they give their sharpest *qui vive* to a novel meant to convey the same teaching.

It would be curious if this should turn out to be a survival of the time when the novel, as such, was taboo among the promoters of the cloistered virtues. Certainly it has happened in other departments of religious censorship that what was once a stroke of decapitation, aimed at a whole species, has become a dubious wielding of the shears of discrimination, clipping at one or two ill favored varieties. However this may be, we may at once admit that there is a certain element of truth in the view that the religious novel may pierce armor from which religious argument falls away blunted. That truth is, that the novel wins a reader and wider hearing than the essay or the monograph can hope for. Many persons are attracted by anything in the shape of a story who would shrink from reading a book demanding close and consecutive thinking. This is the power of logic translated into terms of life and set aglow with passion. If it is only a question of the comparative number of readers, there is nothing to debate about. Where 'Supernatural Religion' has slain its tens, 'Robert Elsmere' will slay its thousands.

But to hear is one thing, to hearken is another. In so far as a novel preaches, it must be content to fare as preaching does. What can only confirm faith should not be expected to create it. Those who already believe the truth which the story teller strives to set forth in her tale, believe it on other evidence—assent in sympathy, others wonder, or become angry, at any rate dissent. What the professional novel reader thinks of the didactic twist given to the narrative upon which he has been induced to enter is fairly enough implied in cynical Labouchere's remark, to the effect that he could not see what objection the Ipswich trustees could take to 'Robert Elsmere'; he, for his part, considered it an entirely harmless book, over which he had fallen sweetly asleep more than once. In fact, the greatest direct effect which that novel could produce upon any mind not already in the same drift with it, would be, not a change of belief, but the sending to the real sources of a change of belief—in this case, the methods and results of modern science, and the historical and comparative study of religions. And one would think that the ingenious young mind of to-day found too many finger-boards, on every road, pointing that way, to make it a matter of surprise or indignation that Mrs. Ward should have erected one more.

This idea, that religious truth dressed out in the attractions of a novel has a seductive power far beyond that of unadorned religious argument and appeal, may be tested by giving it an application the reverse of that thus far noticed. Instead of the heterodox novel laid before the orthodox reader, let it be the orthodox novel laid before the heterodox reader. It is not very probable that the novels of the late E. P. Roe had more effect upon Matthew Arnold than, say, Nelson's 'On Infidelity.' One would not mail to Prof. Huxley the most powerful of Mrs. Prentiss's religious stories, and live in hope of hearing that it had turned him from the error of his ways. Or, if this be said to be quite unfair, since the question is of

influence upon immature minds, let the assault be made upon the children of men holding and teaching in their families such opinions as Arnold held and Huxley holds. It is hard to believe that the "Pansy" books would be successful religious emissaries in such a case. Free-thinking parents might shudder, we admit, at finding such works in the hands of their children, but it would be in fear of something else than religious effects.

The stalwart old theologians had an excellent show of reason for their blunt talk about "effectual calling" and "reprobation." So mysterious are those mental processes which result in changed conviction, that we cannot blame the men who took the easy leap from incomprehensibility to divine arbitrariness. So impossible is it for us to understand why the argument which bends one mind is broken on another, entirely like the first, as far as we can see—why the personality that dominates one life beats in vain against its mate—that we cannot wonder at those who said that argument is nothing and personality is nothing, and that new belief and purpose are forced on the soul by the Eternal Power. Yet we have learned something more than they knew of the subtly generative forces that lie back of the birth of mental children strangely unlike their known parentage. One thing we have learned is that insinuated truth is usually more successful in shaping conviction than arguments flung boldly from an unmasked catapult. This is of the highest importance for the novelist to remember. George Eliot wrote all her novels on that principle. Her free-thinking friends often wondered, sometimes asked her, why she did not let her genius give wings to the religious views she was known to hold. She would not do it. She based her refusal partly on the danger of frightening away her readers; but she could have feared this only because she knew that the teaching they were getting from her was destined to work mightier changes than any she could effect by bolder methods. She struck at a deeper and more vital thing than wrong conceptions of religion, namely, wrong conceptions of morality. Those who learned from her to believe in scientific morals would have already destroyed the substance of a religion based upon an unscientific morality, and the form of it would go, all in good time.

Meanwhile, the fact of such a book as 'Robert Elsmere' coming to be written at all, especially to be written by the person who did write it, is really of more weight and suggestion than anything in the novel itself. Mrs. Ward will certainly find an entry in the next edition of Galton's 'Hereditary Genius' under the Arnold family. Few will dispute that Rugby Arnold's granddaughter has drawn much from his loins. The scholarship, the moral earnestness, the philanthropic zeal, the courage—family heirlooms are they all. But the religious view? Is this atavism too? Well, we only know that the children's teeth are not set on edge unless the fathers have eaten sour grapes. Descendants do but lengthen a man's experience, and give his views a chance to mature. It is but an ex-

ample of the progress from generation to generation, to be observed all about us, that the grandchild yields in showing an ancestral talent increased by the usury of time. This is the great fact, the fact of steady religious change, that makes all arguments for religious change insignificant because it is so much more forcible an argument than any of them. And the great merit of 'Robert Elsmere' is, we believe, the faithful way in which it holds up the mirror to common religious experiences of the age. If astonishingly to reveal the thoughts of many hearts is the proof of a great writing, then such is that book; but that is quite apart from the power of making proselytes, which the Ipswich trustees dreaded.

THE ART AND CRAFTS EXHIBITION.

LONDON, October 6, 1888.

It requires the courage of enthusiasts to open an exhibition in London during the dulllest of all seasons, while most of the frequenters of exhibition rooms are still lingering by the seaside or shooting in Scotland. The moment for a new venture is unpropitious in the extreme, yet there was a goodly gathering at the New Gallery on Saturday, September 30, at the private view of the Exhibition of Arts and Crafts. All who really take genuine interest in art, and who desire beauty of design and ornament in their homes, will wish all success to the Exhibition and its promoters. The aims of the Society are to bring before the public decorative work of all kinds, and to educate their taste as to design, and form and excellence of workmanship, in all the manual arts; also, to give all credit to those who execute the displayed object, and to this end the catalogue gives the name of the designer and also of the executants where any responsibility falls upon them. It seems that this new and quite unprecedented plan of cataloguing met with little encouragement from the principals of the great London firms who contributed objects. They protested against advertising their workmen, and naturally enough, for it was not in their own selfish interest to do so; but Mr. Walter Crane, the President, whose socialistic principles are well known, was imperative on this head, and has in most cases carried his point, so that honor will fall where honor is due—to the worker, and not to the capitalist who employs him. Besides thus bringing into prominence the generally ill-paid work of clever operatives, it is to be hoped that this Exhibition will lead many young enthusiasts, not gifted with any special genius for painting, and longing vainly to follow an artistic career, to turn their capacity into less ambitious channels and to seek to educate themselves for some manual art.

Our exhibitions, crowded as they are with inferior work, refuse thousands of pictures every year, and yet the number of artists and art students is ever increasing. On the other hand, among the cultivated classes there is a great desire to improve the interior of their homes by decorations of all kinds; and one can easily understand that in so dark and dismal a city as London, where the houses are for the most part so dingy and similar as to their exterior, people should seek to make pleasant homes, and love to adorn them according to their means and tastes; and here we have displayed what is needful for that purpose, from wall-papers and chintzes to exquisite tapestries from the looms of Morris & Co. at Merton Abbey, rich *gesso* work by Burne-Jones and Walter Crane, to-

gether with every kind of less ambitious and costly forms of decoration. On entering the Gallery the first object which meets the eye is a copper fountain by W. A. S. Benson. The novelty of the material for this purpose is more striking than effective. The design of the fountain is very simple: a copper basin raised on a brass stem, in the midst of which a tiny temple of brass and copper stands, with glass sides, through which one sees a ball rising to the top and tumbling again as if thrown. To watch this ball would pleasantly while away an idle hour of summer, and it is to be hoped that the directors of the New Gallery may retain it to rest the eyes of their visitors in the summer during the picture exhibition. Mr. Henry Holliday's *eredos* for a church in Philadelphia occupies a prominent position in this hall. It is executed entirely by himself and Mrs. Holliday in Venice and Murano smalti. The system of work is excellent, the coloring is bright and beautiful as regards the draperies, but the heads and hands are not pleasantly designed: they are not conventional and simple enough for mosaic, and not of a type suitable to the subject. When we compare this with the designs for the apse of the American Church of St. Paul's in Rome, by Burne-Jones, in the North Gallery, we become convinced of the all-importance of firm, simple lines, and of the necessity of conventional forms for this art. Notwithstanding the Byzantine character, intentionally adhered to in Burne-Jones's compositions, we find all the originality and immense power of invention of this great master of decorative design, the greatest England has ever produced; and, indeed, with the exception of Raphael, we turn in vain to the past for one who can be said to have produced so much that is lovely and excellent in design.

Two colored designs for further mosaics for the arches of the same church are particularly lovely. In the Annunciation, the scene takes place in a sandy, desert-like country. The Virgin has been seeking for water, her pitcher is beside her; her attitude at the angel's message is full of pious humility. In the Tree of Life, Adam stands on one side, with the implements of field labor; Eve on the other, a tiny baby in her arms, a tattered skin girt round her, a young child, Cain, clinging on to her scanty skirts. The Tree of Life, between the two figures, on which a pitiful Christ hangs, completes the design. But words cannot give the piety of the sentiments expressed in this composition, so simple, so conventional, and so complete. Beside these, by the same hand, are two immense cartoons for the Church of St. Philip's, Birmingham, the birthplace of the artist—the Nativity and the Crucifixion—in which these well-worn themes are treated with great originality. In the Crucifixion, the crowd beneath the cross with the dead Christ is composed of centurions, whose long lances group well with the central figure, supporting the composition so often rather bare and graceless. Near these cartoons, in the same gallery, we admire a gorgeous *cassone*, so magnificent that it would well suit the vast rooms of some Italian palace. This is also a work in *gesso* in high relief, lacquered and painted by Burne-Jones. The design of the front panel is of the Garden of the Hesperides. The tree with the golden apples is in the centre; round its trunk a blue-green, slimy dragon writhes, bending its neck towards a cup of wine which a graceful maiden on her knees is offering; on the other side of the tree, another maiden plays on an ancient instrument to soothe the monster. The tints are all put on over burnished gold, varying its hue; only the faces and hands are painted of a pale, warm, uniform

flesh tint, contrasting well with the brilliancy of the leaves, fruit, and drapery, and the flowers of the field in which the figures kneel. On the side panels verses of William Morris are engraved, explaining the subject, and the back panel is also in simple gold, with a design of deer eating the leaves of a tree branching from the centre of the panel. This is simply engraved in line in the *gesso*.

Walter Crane, whose skill in all the decorative arts is so well recognized, has many examples of *gesso* work. The most beautiful and masterly seems to be the St. George and the Dragon, a prize panel tinted in lacquer. Some of your readers may not know that *gesso* is composed of plaster of Paris, glue, and cotton wool, and that it is very durable and effective for works in relief. It becomes as hard as stone, and is particularly suitable for mantel-pieces and panels and ceilings. We have also, by this artist, the six sketches in color for a painted frieze, illustrating the story of "The Skeleton in Armor" of Longfellow. These were executed on a large scale for the house of an American lady at Newport. There are also very effective wall papers, and a portière in embossed leather, hand-painted on silver lacquer. In the gallery we see the illustrations, so well known, in every stage of color-painting, thus explaining the process they have to go through; also, examples of repoussé work.

Mr. Spencer Stanhope's hanging cupboard is one of the important and elaborate objects of the principal room. The frame is rich Florentine carving, gilt, and partly painted in blue. The central panel represents a band of youths and maidens, all clad in blue, dancing under medlar trees, in which little cupids are perching, preparing to shoot at the revellers. Beautiful glimpses of Italian landscape are to be seen between the tree stems. On either side panel the designs are of figures clad in varied colors; one to the right reminds us of the same artist's "Lethe" picture. The painting is exquisitely finished and very harmonious in color throughout; it seems to be painted in tempera.

Another very finely finished work is a grand piano in green-stained oak, with very elaborate patterns of silver lilies in *gesso* intertwined with gold roses. Round the sides are other patterns of flowers—anemones with leaves, and other more conventional running patterns. The ornamentation of this piano is the work of Miss K. Faulkner.

Mr. W. de Morgan, the potter, has a very remarkable show of tiles and lustre ware. His principal work is a gigantic chimney-piece, in which tiles with painted ships are inserted. The tiles are beautiful in themselves, but they do not seem employed to their best advantage in this mantel-piece, as the principal group is too high up to be sufficiently seen. There are entire cases of plates and bowls of bright copper lustre ware, silver lustre also, and a panel composed of tiles on which are peacocks, with their tails curled alternately towards and against each other; also, a pyramid of tiles, some of which are as bright in color and as beautiful as Persian work.

Mr. Benson has some good copper lamps, and some finger-bowls, likewise in copper, and a sideboard in light wood of simple design.

We note a case of exquisite bindings of Mr. Cobden-Sanderson—the tooling in gold on leather very highly finished, and the designs each especially adapted to the volume it clothes. For example, a small copy of "Romeo and Juliet" has a pattern of intertwined hearts on pale-blue morocco. Each volume shows how far perfection of finish can be carried in the art of bookbinding.

We now come to the exhibits of the firm of

W. Morris & Co.—wall papers, stamped velvets, chintzes, brocades, and brocatels for furniture and house decoration, in rich, flowing patterns and bright, harmonious coloring; a beautiful sideboard in mahogany, and a cabinet in inlaid Spanish mahogany; a hand-made carpet, and very lovely tapestries, which seem quite the richest form of wall decoration. In one here displayed is a St. Cecilia. The larger and more important piece represents lions, foxes, and a hare, with leafage between. In looking around at the numerous designs for wall-papers and textile fabrics by other firms and by artists not yet known to fame, we cannot help noting how they all seem to have followed in the path opened to them by the example of Morris and the artists who, together with him, formed the company that did so much to sweep away the monstrosities of furnishing of the earlier Victorian epoch. These artists were Ford Madox Brown, D. G. Rossetti, and E. Burne-Jones. The last-named alone still furnishes designs for the firm; for beside the tapestries there is a water-color drawing of the Adoration of the Magi, to be executed in the looms of Merton Abbey for Exeter College, Oxford.

A glass case, containing illuminated MSS. from Mr. Morris's own hand, has attracted the greatest attention. The "Rubáyát" of Omar Khayyám is especially rich in designs which cover the page, underlying the writing. The patterns are in gold, sometimes with touches of color; the capital letters are marvels of invention. In "A Book of Songs" the little miniature pictures are very beautifully designed and painted. Some pages also of the Odes of Horace make one wish one could hold in one's hand and turn over the leaves of these splendid manuscripts, which have never been shown before to the public.

The art of needlework is very well represented in all its wide range of capabilities. Some full-length figures by Miss Burden show great skill, but, to our mind, are less adapted to needlework than less ambitious designs. There is a magnificent portière worked in colored silks on white linen by Mrs. and Miss Morris, the pattern of fritillaries, crown imperials, and large roses. A book cover, which is to be used for binding "Love is Enough," designed and worked by Miss May Morris, will no doubt revive the old embroidered book bindings; for to what better use could one put really delicate work than this? Some very original cabinet panels by Mrs. Walter Crane are remarkable; also a mantel valance worked in colored thread on black merino, the designs being by Walter Crane. Other important panels and screens in floss silk are displayed by Mrs. Holliday, Mrs. Cornton, Miss Una Taylor, and Miss May Morris. Excellent samples of work on linen of the very best kind, and some facsimiles of old Greek lace, are sent by Miss M. A. Smith. The Chiswick Press sends a case of books printed between the years 1831 and 1888.

We must not fail to mention two cartoons for stained glass by Ford Madox Brown, whose work is so rarely to be seen, as for many years he refrains from exhibiting. These drawings are very individual and full of character. There is also a crucifix in tinted sculpture, of very remarkable workmanship and design, by Christopher Whall, an artist as yet not much known. The four ends of the cross contain compositions of children in adoration and sorrow, all treated with the tender feeling Donatello infused into his children, and yet the work bears a distinct English character. We have no space to describe more, although there is much to interest and instruct us. The catalogue contains short essays on each art by the

leading men on the Committee for Arts and Crafts, who will later give lectures, each on his own subject, at the New Gallery during this Exhibition.

THE THIRD GERMAN MODERN LANGUAGE CONVENTION.

DRESDEN, October 3, 1888.

THE success of the Modern Language Association of America, organized in 1881 through the efforts of Prof. Elliott of the Johns Hopkins University, encouraged certain members of local modern language associations in Germany to organize there a general association. The first meeting was held in the city of Hanover, the second at Frankfurt on the Main, and the third the past few days here in Dresden. The fourth session will be held at Stuttgart, and, instead of in the fall of '89, in the spring of '90.

The meeting at Dresden has been interesting in itself as well as compared with our association at home. Of course, in a city with so many attractions as the Saxon capital, the members could not be held to attendance on many long sessions, and the management wisely took it upon themselves to arrange even the diversions in such a manner that they could, as much as possible, be participated in in common, and thus more cheaply. In this way a *Festkarte*, costing 10 marks, or \$2.50, entitled one to take part in the dinner on the Belvedere on Saturday and the banquet and ball in Meissen on Sunday, to view the royal collections and the exhibition prepared by certain members of the Association, and also to one of the best seats in the theatre in Old or New Town ("The Magic Flute" and "King Lear"), a ticket to one of the panoramas in the city, and a guide-book of Dresden. Friday evening there was a social reception at the hotel at the sign of the Three Ravens, Saturday night at the close of the theatre a *Festkommers* in the Kaiserhof, and Monday afternoon an *Abendschmaus* at the Bismarck Restaurant. Saturday morning the Association was received in the beautiful Hall of the Polytechnikum with words of greeting from the Saxon Minister of Education and a member of the Common Council of Dresden. When the gentlemen retired from the hall, the members rose to their feet—a ceremony which they were also requested to go through after the reading of the names of members who had died during the year. Saturday morning and afternoon and Monday morning were held the three sessions of the Association; and of the seven papers announced five were read and in part discussed. The fewness of the subjects presented was one of the excellent features of this meeting. There was no sense of a need of hurrying or of cutting short interesting discussions, and the members were able to give each paper due attention and develop a real interest in the subject presented. The discussion became at times animated, especially with reference to methods. There were not wanting, any more than with us, those who take part in debate because they love to hear themselves talk; still, I could not but admire the promptness with which the chief bores of this class were silenced.

The first paper was read by Baron von Locella, an Italian resident in Dresden, on the study of Dante in Germany. It seems that no other foreign poet has been translated and edited in Germany to such an extent as Dante. Prof. Körting of Münster spoke on the aims and tasks of the Romance philology of to-day. He complained that in the study of Romance philology and literature French enjoyed more

than its due share, urged that more attention be given the other Romance languages, and recommended the preparation of a volume of selections from the less familiar of these idioms. Dialect study proper he would, however, leave to natives, because of the great advantage they possess. He referred to the want of grammars at all up to the standard of the philology of to-day, and suggested the desirability of an investigation that would show what classes of Latin words passed into the various Romance languages, and thus throw light upon the history of civilization. Dr. Mahrenholtz of Dresden read an essay on Friedrich Melechiur Grimm and the part he played in making the Frenchmen of his day acquainted with German literature and ideas. Prof. Stengel of Marburg presented briefly a plan to gather material for the preparation of a history of French grammar in Germany, and appealed to the members of the Association to help him by collecting the titles, etc., of such grammars as might be in their local libraries.

The only pedagogical paper was presented by Principal Dörr of Solingen; it was on "Reform in Modern Language Instruction," and called forth much earnest discussion. The subject of a reform in the method of teaching modern languages had been brought up at the previous meetings of the Association, and resolutions passed to the effect that the Association was in favor of a change in the method of instruction, subordinating grammar and translation into the foreign language, making reading the basis of instruction, and emphasizing oral reproduction. A number of instructors have undertaken to teach on this plan, but Dörr had begun a similar method several years ago, and the object of his paper was to describe his mode of instruction and state his experiences. Neglecting theoretic phonology, he begins by teaching orally the numerals and the few verbal forms and conjunctions required in the formulas of addition, multiplication, and the like. Then come counting-out rhymes, little poems, short stories, etc. With the second year the first book is employed, and that a reader. Here attention is paid, not only to pronunciation and such difficulties as the language presents, but also to the text itself, which must lie within the intellectual sphere of the pupil and (if possible) have connection with his other studies. Grammar is taught very slowly, one subject only being considered at a time, and that for several consecutive lessons. The use of the foreign language, even in the grammatical explanations, is insisted upon when possible; a translation into the mother tongue is at first required, but later a free reproduction in the foreign language preferred. The pupil's attention is early drawn to the fact that the foreign word does not always correspond to any one word in the mother tongue; later he is taught to distinguish classes of words, and to perceive the force of prefixes and suffixes; still later his attention is directed to figurative and idiomatic expressions, and to the conception underlying them. Translation into the foreign language is entirely discarded. This is, in brief, Dörr's method as he has worked it out in the past nine years, and with the success of which he is well satisfied. Assufficient evidence of its superiority to the usual method, he regards the greater spirit and pleasure with which he, as well as the pupils, come to the recitation and take part in the exercise, as compared with that in classes he conducted at the same time according to the old method. He seems to forget that this very enthusiasm with which he teaches his new method is largely the cause of that of his pupils, and a chief source of his success. He himself does not deny that

the method has its less sunny sides, and finds that it makes much greater demands upon the teacher, and is less successful in proportion as the language is inflectional; there being, indeed, a decided difference even between English and French.

In the succeeding discussion, the following points seemed to find nearly general approval, viz., that phonetic transcriptions were the source of more mischief than good; that translation into the foreign language should be kept up by the side of free reproduction; that, while there was much in the old system that was wrong or led to evil results, it was not wise to throw it entirely overboard, nor was full salvation to be found in the new method in its present form; finally, that reform was impossible under any method so long as the training of those aiming to become teachers is restricted to the subjects to be taught, and does not extend to pedagogical principles. This latter point will receive the hearty endorsement of all who have observed, by the side of the unequalled learning of German scholars, their deplorable ignorance of pedagogical principles and incapacity as teachers. Finally, a resolution was offered and passed to the effect that it was the sense of the Third German Modern Language Convention, that it is desirable that as many further experiments as possible be made with the method of instruction which treats the foreign language as a spoken rather than a written one, and has for the basis of instruction a continuous specimen of the language to be learned, instead of disconnected sentences. This resolution cannot be regarded as an unqualified declaration on the part of the Convention in favor of the new method; for, to say nothing of the guarded form in which it is put, it was passed by a majority vote at the close of the day, after a long discussion, and with the understanding that, should it not be passed, the discussion should be continued.

After some deliberation it was decided to withdraw from the *Neuphilologisches Centralblatt* of Hanover the privilege of designating itself the organ of the Association, and not to grant this privilege to any other journal nor establish a special organ, but to publish independent brochures for distribution among the members, as the Modern Language Association of America does.

A report was given as to the efforts made by the Association to induce the various German States to establish travelling scholarships, for the purpose of enabling students desirous of becoming teachers of modern languages to spend some time in the countries where those languages are spoken. Thus far Baden alone has taken steps in this direction, while in Saxony there is good prospect of speedy action. Prof. Stengler proposed that the Association give the other States a year to consider the matter, and then, if unsuccessful, "begin again, and bore and bore till the hard wood is bored through."

The Association now has more than 800 members, with an attendance on this year's convention of 126. Its membership, different from that of our association in America, is made up for the most part of teachers in the high schools and colleges of technology. Of university professors, besides those mentioned above, there were present R. Wülker, the chairman, Zupitza, Vollmüller, Viëtor, Kälbing, etc. There were two from America present.

One novel feature connected with this year's meeting was an exhibition of pictures, books, etc., illustrative of the works and times of Dante, Shakspeare, Scott, Burns, Molière, and Sandeau. These collections were made by cer-

tain members of the Association from public and private libraries, and were arranged for exhibition in the rooms adjoining the hall where the Association held its sessions. The collections were not all made on the same basis; that pertaining to Dante including illustrated and other editions of his works and translations of them, while the others were restricted mostly to pictures and busts. The Dante exhibition, the most important, was made by Baron von Locella, who was loaned many rare and valuable works by Prince George of Saxony, the Department of Instruction of the Kingdom of Italy, the city of Florence, etc. A list of the subdivisions of the Molière collection will give a good idea of the best of the other exhibitions: Busts and pictures of Molière; pictures of the house where Molière was born, representations of his arms, and facsimiles of his autograph; illustrated editions of his works and other engravings and pictures illustrative of them; musical compositions of his works and representations of the musical instruments of his day; representations pertaining to the history of the theatre of the time and Molière's troupe; pictures of patrons and friends; engravings and other pictures illustrative of the civilization of the seventeenth century.

Sunday morning the members of the Association, accompanied by their wives, daughters, or friends, went by special train to Meissen. At noon there was a banquet in "Die Sonne"; later we made a tour through the beautiful halls and apartments of the Stammschloss of the Saxon kings, and in the evening took part in the ball, or sat near by, drinking coffee and chatting, or watching the comical performances of those who danced the *cottillon*.

GEORGE HEMPLE.

Correspondence.

ON PARAPHRASING FROM THE GERMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Rosenkranz's "Pedagogics as a System," translated by Anna C. Brackett (St. Louis: 1872), we find the following statement:

"Cleanliness will not endure that things shall be deprived of their proper individuality through the elemental chaos" (p. 31).

On page 54 of Part Second we find Miss Brackett's paraphrase of this passage as follows:

"Cleanliness will not have things deprived of their distinctive and individual character, and become again a part of original chaos. It is only a form of order which remands all things, dirt included, to their own places, and will not endure to have things mixed and confused."

Finally, on page 96, we have a paraphrase by Dr. Harris:

"Cleanliness means 'a place for everything, and everything in its place.' To take a thing out of its proper relations is to 'deprive it of its proper individuality,' and in an 'elemental chaos' everything has lost its proper relations to other things, and has no longer any use or fitness in its existence."

These quotations illustrate the thought embodied in my note in the *Academy*, which has served your correspondent "X" as a text for his fine moralizing. All I intended to say was that the speculations of a German educational philosopher frequently need, not only to be turned literally into English, but to be paraphrased, as Miss Brackett and Dr. Harris have done in the

volume cited, in order to come within the ready comprehension of the ordinary reader. Any disparagement of German educational literature, as such, on my part, is a gratuitous assumption by my anonymous critic, for an unworthy purpose.

W. H. PAYNE.

PEABODY NORMAL COLLEGE, NASHVILLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I join hands with your correspondent "X" in his condemnation of Prof. Payne. I am myself one of those astonishing prigs who take their Kant in all his original Teutonicity in order to get "the flavor of the German," and I am sure that I can see in the German philosophers nothing but luminous simplicity and crystalline lucidity. Conceive, then, with what a shriek of *Zughaftigkeit* I greeted the suggestion of Dr. Harris, in his introduction to Rosenkranz, that the translation is probably "more comprehensible than the original." What is this but saying that English common sense is superior to German philosophical ponderosity, and what is that but accepting the heresy of Prof. Payne? I declare, the discovery gave me such a turn as I have not experienced since I read the utterance of Carlyle (himself something of a German scholar) apropos of 'Wilhelm Meister': "Goethe is the greatest genius that has lived for a century and the greatest ass that has lived for three. I could sometimes fall down and worship him; at other times I could kick him out of the room."

Let us cry aloud to the errant members of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club to leave the primrose path of Miss Brackett and Dr. Harris, and make their way into the steep and thorny road of Rosenkranz.

Y.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me space for the following, to be set over against "Prof. Payne on German Books on Pedagogy"?

"On the whole, philosophical speculation has been a hindrance to the Germans, often bringing into their style an element of the senseless and incomprehensible. The more they have given themselves to certain philosophical schools the worse they write."—*Goethe*, through Eckermann. In another place *Goethe*, speaking of a German writer of his time who was under Hegel's influence, said: "In his book we come upon places where the mind halts entirely, and we no longer know what we are reading." Hosmer says, "The besetting defect of German writers . . . is an obscurity, proceeding sometimes from a wilful imitation of the conduct of the cuttle fish, sometimes from want of the sense of proportion." Matthew Arnold has criticised severely the "ponderous, roundabout, inane," in German literature, and so have others; and so, perhaps, would "X" if he should try to explain Rosenkranz's thought in losing his "proper individuality in the elemental chaos." If any profit is to be got from such writers, surely a literal translation is not sufficient for the ordinary reader.

Prof. Payne is Chancellor of the University of Nashville, and in addition President of the Peabody Normal College. This position was taken, not for his own profit or convenience, but from the thought that in this place he could do most to advance the condition of the teachers of the South, and through them their schools. This work I hold to be akin to, but higher than, patriotism, and for this reason I am moved to speak against his would-be defamer. Yours,

FRANK M. DREW.

GENOA, ILL., October 16, 1888.

THE UNIVERSITY NEED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is gratifying, indeed, to read such sentiments as were expressed in your editorial on Columbia College in the *Nation* of October 11. Especially is it gratifying to students who have finished their undergraduate work, and are now looking about for still higher courses and broader opportunities for study. The time is now at hand in America when the leading universities must offer to their graduates superior advantages for original work, and more abundant opportunities for independent investigation than those prescribed in the regular college curriculum.

The history of the growth and development of seminary and post-graduate work at the University of Michigan well illustrates the exigencies of the times. In 1883 there were eleven students graduated with higher degrees; only about one-half of them, however, were really post-graduates and were pursuing seminary work in the true sense of that term. In 1887 there were sixteen successful candidates for degrees who were pursuing their work upon the University system. Thirteen of these were working for the higher degrees (M.A. and Ph.D.). According to the University Calendar of 1887-88, there were in all fifty-nine students pursuing courses of study under the direction of the university for the higher degrees. Nine of these received their degrees last June. The total number of students pursuing work on the university system last year was twenty-two, thus showing a marked increase in the popularity of this method of study among the students. (I may say in parenthesis that the university system is one of final examination, and not one of examinations upon each book gone through during the semester. It encourages investigation, and prompts students to original work, and is conducted in a similar manner to post-graduate work.) Already this fall more than fifteen applications are in for higher degrees from students in residence; and about one-half of these applications are for the Ph.D. degree.

Thus we can see the constant increase in the number of students pursuing higher work. The illustration furnished by the University of Michigan can, in a similar manner, be obtained from the other great universities of this country. But this is not all. We cannot suppose that these students, having pursued their special lines of work up to their higher degrees, are then to give up all their expectations of future study at some still higher institution of learning. On the contrary, it is safe to say that one-half of the post-graduates in our colleges now are contemplating extended courses of study abroad. The fact is, that not less than 20 per cent. of these post-graduates do go abroad for study, sooner or later, and many more would if their means would allow.

The question, then, that presents itself, not only to those who are now post-graduates, but also to those who are soon to be such, is, Why cannot America furnish as advanced instruction as Germany or France; and why cannot American college professors establish here in the United States *Seminaries* of as high grade as those of Leipzig, Bonn, or Berlin? It would be a far wiser outlay of money on the part of Mr. Clark in Massachusetts, or Mr. Sanford in California, to found for students, and professors, too, a school where the *depth of things* could be arrived at more nearly, and investigation be carried on for its own sake, than to found two additional universities like those already existing in this country.

The tendency of students at the present day

to become specialists brings this demand for higher instruction up to a necessity. That there is such a demand, every one can see, that it should be met speedily and adequately, no one will deny. And it is hoped that the time is near at hand when the idea expressed by President Barnard in his report will take tangible shape, not only at Columbia, but also at other of our great institutions of learning. Our great need, beyond all doubt, in this country is for a few "real universities." Yours truly,

F. C. CLARK.

ASS. AGRIC. October 13, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on Columbia College, in the *Nation* of October 11, closes thus:

"The country needs all the help it can get from the very highest culture in resisting the torrent of materialism which has, ever since the war, been flowing over the land, and for such culture nothing would do so much good as two or three real universities."

No one will gainsay this. But in all those able and earnest discussions of the subject of a real university which of late years have from time to time appeared in the *Nation* and in some of the best periodicals, one very important thing is always overlooked. As matters now stand, I fear we are far from being ready for such a university; not, indeed, for want of preparatory colleges, nor for want of able professors, nor yet for want of sufficient desire on the part of our students for high attainments. And yet we should lack the students. In order that we might have the students, certain legislation would first be necessary, which, however, is not to be looked for in any of our States.

Let me explain. No one who has pursued a course of studies at a German university, and has become acquainted with the life there, imagines that a majority of the students there study because they love studying, or even from a desire for excellence. On the contrary, the real motive power is the fear of the difficult state examination, which must be passed in order to take any position of profit or honor. Take the case of the medical student. In the first place, he is not admitted as a regular student of medicine unless he has passed his examination of "maturity" at the gymnasium, only foreigners being admitted without this; but furthermore he is not allowed to practise, even after graduation, unless he has also passed that state examination. So it is again in the case of the lawyer, and likewise in the case of the divine.

We have on this side of the ocean no such regulations, nor are we likely to have them. Imagine a law to be made that no person should be admitted as a medical student, or as a law student, unless he were able to write, in good Latin and also in correct French, a composition upon a given subject, and unless he should have a pretty thorough knowledge of general history, etc. All this is out of the question. Nor shall we have, for a long time to come, anything like those state examinations. But it must be admitted that for the average student everywhere some such strong outer motive is really necessary. The absence of some regulation similar to those mentioned produces with us this lamentable state of affairs, that such numbers of our doctors and lawyers are really uneducated and ignorant.

Let us, then, before we try to have a true university, endeavor to get some effective regulations concerning the licenses of our doctors and our lawyers, and soon our standard of ambition as to general acquirements will rise,

and we shall be on the way to get ready to have a real university. Respectfully yours,

WERNER A. STILLE.

ST. LOUIS, October 15, 1888.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is one sentence in your editorial on Columbia College that seems to me to be erroneous, or at least very liable to misinterpretation. It is this:

"The country needs all the help it can get from the very highest culture in resisting the torrent of materialism which has, ever since the war, been flowing over the land; and for such culture nothing would do so much good as two or three real universities."

As the subject is one of some importance, I beg leave to offer a few observations. From your main proposition, I think few intelligent men will dissent; as to the conclusion, the case is much less clear. On reading the article, one is led almost unconsciously to think of Germany, where there are more real universities than in any other country; and the question naturally suggests itself, Is materialism less prevalent there than among us? I have spent some years at different times in Germany, chiefly in the company of university men, and have for nearly a score of years been a diligent reader of German books, but my observations do not warrant the inference which seems to flow from your remark.

I am aware that the spirit of materialism usually manifests itself in one of two ways: the man of thought is often materialistic in his philosophy and spiritualistic in his life; caring little for those things that may be seen and handled, he sets a high value upon intellectual riches. On the other hand, there is the practical materialism which one meets so constantly in this country, no less among church members than among other people, that is greatly concerned about material prosperity, but comparatively indifferent about those things which persons of culture esteem above all else. This class is so numerous represented that we may well use the Horatian dictum "*Tanti quantum habetis sis*," to characterize the most prominent trait of our contemporary thought. We may give a slightly different turn to an observation of Ampère on the poet Ausonius, by saying that the great majority of our church-members are Christians, and therefore spiritualists, when they pray, but materialists during most of their remaining waking hours.

But I am led to think that a kind of materialism which has more or less claim to be called philosophical is very common in Germany. Often it is philosophical only in that it claims to be ratiocinative. "*Es glaubt kein Mediciner an einen Gott*," "*Alle Mediciner sind Atheisten*," are expressions that I have heard used more than once to designate the faith, or lack of faith, that is characteristic of a numerous represented and influential profession. This statement is, of course, not literally true, but I have seen no reason to doubt that it contains much of truth. It is well known, too, that the writings of such ultra-materialists as Büchner and Vogt are much read in books and periodicals. The materialism of other popular writers is less openly avowed, though hardly less patent. The signs of the times in France likewise indicate that there, as in Germany, the belief in a personal immortality is a rapidly decreasing quantity. If, then, it be our object to promote idealism in thought and life, without regard to the question of man's personal immortality, we cannot do better than to encourage the founding of real universities, in which instruction shall be absolutely unrestricted; but if it be our concern to encourage

Christian orthodoxy, of even the most liberal type, something else is needed. S.

ATHENS, O., October, 1888.

THE POINT OF VIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the matter of the religious condition of the back towns there will hardly be any dispute that a grave problem exists. What constitutes the cause of this problem, however, will be a subject of very great difference. To you, the cause of these facts, which, as you say, are "notorious," is the declining force of Christianity. To many of your readers, on the other hand, the cause will be found in the general drying up of country civilization. With scarcely an exception, the depleted church is the inevitable result of a depleted social existence. The back towns, for over a generation past, have yielded up most of their choicest elements. The young, vigorous, and creative life has sought its appropriate sphere in the cities. In most cases the actual numbers are very much less, and in all cases the proportion of actual business and enterprise is smaller than what it once was. Life, society, even humanity, are at a very low ebb in comparison with the state of former times. Now, that the church, which relies for its existence on the leading spirits of any community, should not be deeply, and in some cases hopelessly, affected by the deterioration of life in general, would be simply incredible.

The missionary, then, in the back towns is not trying to do over again a work which once flourished and now has fallen into decay: he is attempting a really new work. The field is the same, but an entirely new set of conditions make it an entirely new work. It is a new generation and a genetically different one. The missionary to the back towns of Vermont and western Massachusetts is really a pioneer, trying to make Christianity intelligible to a mind which, however it may have seen and known the form of godliness, has only in a few devout hearts known the power thereof. But, like a missionary to China or Japan, this Vermont missionary must learn the language of the people, and must know the language in which alone the Christian life is able to make itself understood to the people. The methods proposed in the late numbers of the *Andover Review* have just this end in view. They represent a desire on the part of the minister to be understood. You think these methods are grotesque, and that they are as little likely to promote religious feeling as the study of botany is likely to promote the scientific idea of taxation. But the problem is so difficult a one, and the conditions of success so complicated, that an opinion on the merits of such methods belongs of right only to those who are working in and among the people to whom they are directed. A summer acquaintance with the country will not do. Not the widest acquaintance with large tracts of country, or of innumerable instances of dwindling churches and contentious congregations, will aid much in judging of these proposals. But actual residence fits a man for speaking—actual sharing of what is a very hard and grinding lot; and no one can have the one and do the other without feeling how true and scientific these methods are—the methods you quote.

You will pardon a minister for dissenting from your view that the case is a hopeless one, the force of Christianity having spent itself. Nothing less than the strongest confidence that the force of Christianity has not spent itself, but is equal also to this hardest of problems in the hardest of conditions, could keep a serious

man an instant longer at such posts. But, reinforced by the feeling of whose service it is he labors in, and with such an appeal to his humanity and to his spiritual imagination, he can afford his utmost, and expect finally a religious success which shall be complete.

I am yours truly, JOHN TUNIS.

[Even though to the country minister alone an opinion "belongs of right," yet we may be allowed to remark that we did not say "the case is a hopeless one, the force of Christianity having spent itself." We said it is required to find why "there is no more power" in that force—*i. e.*, no more than there is. We know of no one who will say that that force in the "back towns" now is what it was when the disciples "were all with one accord in one place." But if the force of Christianity be not "declining," or declined, how comes it that "Life, society, even humanity, are at a very low ebb in comparison with the state of former times," with the church "deeply, and in some cases hopelessly, affected by the deterioration of life in general"? For what has "the proportion of actual business and enterprise" to do with religion?—ED. NATION.]

HOISTING THE ENGINEER WITH HIS OWN PETARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I do not think attention has been called in your columns to a rather unexpected result of the activity of the American Protective Tariff League. Its system of offering prizes for essays by members of the Senior classes in colleges and universities began last year, the subject announced being "The Advantages of a Protective Tariff to the Labor and Industries of the United States." Among many competitors was Mr. Crawford D. Hening of that renowned stronghold of protection, the University of Pennsylvania. Mr. Hening made a thorough study of the subject—so thorough that he not only won the first prize, \$250, but also became sufficiently interested to continue his investigation after his immediate work was accomplished. In time he became convinced that, whatever may have been the advantages of a high tariff in the past, what the country needed now was a thorough revision of the tariff, with a conservative reduction of duties, as proposed by Mr. Cleveland and the Mills Bill. The result was a new essay on "The Tariff and the Surplus," for which he chose as a motto Milton's words, "By this time, like one who had set out on his way by night, and travelled through a region of smooth and idle dreams, our history now arrives on the confines where daylight and truth meet us with a clear dawn, representing to our view, though at far distance, true colors and shapes."

The new essay has been printed by the Pennsylvania Democratic State Committee, in much better type than the Tariff League saw fit to use for the first one, and it deserves at least an equal number of readers. It is to be hoped that some of this year's essayists will be as successful as Mr. Hening in attaining the regions of "daylight and truth." Thus will the American Protective Tariff League become, though unintentionally, a blessing to the country. C. C. B.

PHILADELPHIA, October 22, 1888.

COTTON HOSIERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has been stated by you that "free

wool" will be a benefit to the manufacturers of this country. If "free wool" would benefit them, why doesn't "free cotton" benefit them? With all the facilities and natural advantages we have in this staple, we cannot to-day compete with the manufacturers of England, France, and Germany in the production of cotton hosiery.

One of our city's greatest industries, up to five years ago, was the manufacture of cotton hosiery for men, women, and children. To-day this industry, in the finer grades of goods, is dead. I can give you the names of half-a-dozen mills in this city that, up to five years ago, turned out 10,000 to 12,000 dozens of cotton-hose a day. To-day they do not make a pair. How do you account for this? No other mills have started up to make the same class of goods. The seamless goods have not driven them out of the market, because the gauge is too coarse, making the stocking too heavy and clumsy to take their place.

Look in our retail-store windows, and see the ladies' foreign-made hose selling at 15 cents to 25 cents per pair, men's half-hose 12½ cents to 25 cents per pair, children's hose from 10 cents to 20 cents per pair. These are the goods that have driven our goods out of the market.

What is the reason they have driven us out? Do not say, as Mr. Mills did, that the foreign manufacturer has a secret process by which he makes these goods. We can get the same machines he uses and can get the same skilled labor right here in this city to-day that has made goods like we speak of. Do not say the duty on dyes used in the goods is the cause. If the foreign manufacturer got his dyeing for nothing, it would only make a difference of 20 to 25 cents a dozen in his favor. May be you will say it is the protection that the spinner gets for his yarns that makes the difference. The yarn used in these goods is worth about 22 cents per pound. The duty on this is 10 cents a pound and 20 per cent. ad valorem. The goods weigh about 1½ pounds to the dozen. This would make about 25 cents per dozen. Here is a difference of 50 cents per dozen in favor of the foreign manufacturer, and remember this gives him his dyeing for nothing. To offset this the foreign goods have to pay a duty of 35 per cent. ad valorem.

At \$1.50 per dozen (which is a very low average), this would be 52½ cents per dozen added to their cost. And still, with all this "robber tax," as you term it, the foreign manufacturer continues to make goods for this market and make money at it, while our mills at home have to close up or get in some other branch. What is the reason of this? We can surely get the raw cotton as cheap as they can. But can we get the "labor" as cheap as they can? Would not the same state of affairs occur if we had free wool? Yours very respectfully,

JOHN J. ARMSTRONG.

No. 27 BANK STREET, PHILADELPHIA, Oct. 13.

[There are two possible explanations of the misfortune which befell Mr. Armstrong's friends, the hosiery manufacturers of Philadelphia. One is, that they had too much tariff, for whereas the duty on cotton hosiery prior to 1883 was 35 per cent. ad valorem, it was raised to 40 per cent. by the tariff of that year. As Mr. Armstrong fixes the date "five years ago" when the industry began to decline, the coincidence seems rather remarkable.

The other possible explanation is, that they relied too much on the tariff and gave too little heed to industrial progress in the manu-

facture of hosiery. This would not be the first case in which failure had resulted from too close attention to business in Washington and too little at home. At all events, the cotton-hosiery manufacture is successfully carried on in Rhode Island, and what is done there ought to be done in Philadelphia with equal business qualifications. The tariff is the same in both places, and there ought not to be much difference in the rate of wages. There is no difference to speak of between the Rhode Island wages and English wages in the hosiery trade. Any industry which cannot get on under such conditions, with a protection of 40 per cent. (which, by the way, is not changed by the Mills bill), ought to be smitten with the great hammer of Thor.

Coming back to Mr. Armstrong's first query, we suppose he would not contend that a tax of 10 cents a pound on raw cotton would revive this ruined industry. ED. NATION.]

THE PRICE OF STEEL RAILS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The protectionists "pout with pride" to the tariff on steel rails, and claim it as a triumph of protection that it has reduced the price from over \$100 per ton to present price. I, of course, don't believe the protective tariff did it, but am unable to find an explanation of the decline in price. It seems to me the *Nation* would help the cause if it could find space to print a brief history of the steel-rail industry, pointing out the causes that have conspired to bring about the fall in price.

Respectfully yours, F. D. HEDDERLYS,
LANCASTER, N. H., October 18, 1888.

[The answer to this question is summed up in the improvements and inventions applicable to the production of steel rails that have come in play during the past fifteen years. The details have often been published and are easily accessible. It is sufficient to say that, since the price of rails has fallen in England even more than in this country, the tariff had nothing to do with it.—ED. NATION.]

THE PRESIDENT'S ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A writer in the last *North American Review*, under the head of "The President's English," attempts to prove Cleveland's intense egotism by contrasting his marked use of the first personal pronoun with the modesty of our earlier Presidents in referring to themselves as individuals in their public utterances. In proof of such offensive egotism, the writer produces an extract from Cleveland's letter of acceptance containing 712 words, in which he shows the use of the first personal pronoun 45 times, or once in every sixteen and a fraction words.

It is interesting to notice that Washington, the most notably modest of all our Presidents, uses in his Resignation of Commission speech, December 23, 1783, one first personal pronoun in every twelve and a fraction words. In his Inaugural Address, April 30, 1789, he uses, in the first paragraph of 315 words, 21 first personal pronouns, or one in every fifteen, while his Farewell Address, which has become an American classic, presents extracts which show

quite as free a use of the objectionable pronoun as the extract cited from Cleveland's letter.

Such an attempt to prove "personal egotism" must necessarily seem puerile in the last degree, even to a
GEORGE REVERDINIAN,
OCTOBER 17, 1888.

FRENCH CONSTITUTIONAL CHANGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The author of the article on "French Constitutional Amendment," in the last issue of the *Nation*, is slightly at fault in regard to the history of the constitutional changes introduced in France since the adoption of the present Constitution in 1875. Two revisions of the Constitution have taken place, but not in 1884 and 1885, as is stated by the author of the article. The dates are 1879 and 1884. The effect of the first revision was merely to decree the return of the Houses and President from Versailles to Paris.

Another mistake of the article consists in presenting the change from the *scrutin d'arrondissement* to the *scrutin de liste* as a constitutional amendment. The law governing the elections to the Chamber of Deputies was never a part of the Constitution. It could be, and was, changed in the same way as any other law, and no meeting of the National Assembly is now needed in order to prescribe a return to the former mode of voting. Students of French political matters may remember that the occasion selected by Gambetta's enemies to bring about his downfall, in January, 1883, was his proposal to establish the *scrutin de liste* and to make it part of the Constitution. As the law governing the elections to the Senate was a part of that instrument, Gambetta thought it only logical that the same character should attach to the law governing the elections to the lower House. The rejection of Gambetta's plan was what induced M. Ferry, two years later, to try a different system, and to take the law relating to the elections to the Senate out of the Constitution. That was the main change introduced in the Constitution in 1884, and the law abolishing life-senatorships and enlarging the constituency of the Senate, which was afterwards passed, was merely a legislative enactment, not a constitutional amendment.

Without entering upon any discussion of the present rather tangled revision question in France, I will say that I agree with the author of the article in thinking that the main change needed in the Constitution is an amendment making it more difficult in the future to amend it further. But, even while wishing for such a change, I might shrink from desiring a meeting of the National Assembly now, in the present unsettled condition of the public mind. An assembly of nearly 900 members is always pretty much of a mob, and no one can predict what would come out of such a meeting.

Yours truly,

A. C.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, October 22, 1888.

[We must adhere to our words. The removal of the seat of government from Versailles to Paris in 1879 is not spoken of by French publicists as "a revision of the Constitution." What are known as "revisions of the Constitution" occurred in the years we gave, 1884 and 1885. The change in 1885 from *scrutin d'arrondissement* to *scrutin de liste* is called in all the books a revision, because it changed an electoral law passed by the National Assembly sitting as a Constitutional Convention, which law was, like a similar "special law" providing for

the election of the Senate, to all intents and purposes a part of the Constitution, and differed from other parts solely in being amendable by the two Chambers acting in their ordinary legislative capacity, instead of by the two Chambers sitting together in National Assembly, or, as we should call it, the joint convention.—ED. NATION.]

"TO ELIMINATE" AND "ELIMINATION."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having recently had occasion to look into Mr. E. S. Gould's *Good English*, I there chanced on the following sentence at p. 186:

"Others speak from the throat in a hollow, sepulchral tone, and with an elaboration of syllables and emphasis so mixed together that no ear can eliminate the individual words."

This is from the "revised edition" of 1880; but it appears, on turning to the preface of the first edition, that the sentence dates from 1865.

Mr. Gould's claim to a knowledge of the way we are to speak and write our language, if we would do so irreproachably, is most confidently implied throughout his book. Nor does any competent judge of that performance require to be told that his criticisms aim at conformity with all that is exact, not to say fastidious. An idea of his qualifications for handling the subject of which he thought himself a master is, however, furnished by the specimen of his composition given above. During the course of fifteen years he failed to discover that he had there used the verb *to eliminate* in a sense which, probably, no other writer has ever imposed on it, namely, that of 'to distinguish or 'to discriminate.' The error of somehow misusing the term is one that is common, and no less common, I believe, in the United States than in Great Britain. To call attention to it cannot, therefore, be amiss.

It is only as a verb transitive that we find our adaptation of *eliminare*. Almost invariably, above all in the present century, our best authors, in their employment of *to eliminate*, have, further, kept very close to the usual signification of its Latin original. Whether in popular diction, or in scientific, they have generally intended to convey, by it, with reference to what is superfluous, irrelevant, injurious, or unwelcome, the notion of its ejection, extrusion, removal, or riddance, or else, figuratively, that of its deletion or expunction. In passing, *to eliminate* was unknown to Dr. Johnson. As to *elimination*, he had to take it, unexampled, from his predecessor Bailey; and Dr. Richardson ignores it entirely.

Numerous inaccurate writers that might be specified so use *to eliminate* that, for all the aid of contexts, the meaning which they attach to it is matter of uncertainty. Here and there, however, they clearly understand it to be one with 'to separate'; as though they had previously misapprehended some such phrase as "to eliminate impurities," or "to eliminate a poisonous element." And even professional guides to English have occasionally contributed to establish this corrupt innovation. One of these is the Rev. James Stormonth; and Dr. Worcester, besides partially misdefining *elimination*, taken as an algebraic technicality, represents Bp. Joseph Hall as identifying the word with 'separation,' though the passage to which he refers, cited in full by Archdeacon Todd, lends no support to such an equation.

I now come to the *Synonyms and Antonyms* of the Ven. C. J. Smith (1867), from which the

subjoined congeries of preposterously false philology is transcribed:

"ELIMINATE, *v. tr.* *E* and *limen*, a threshold. To bring out from the recesses of private concealment into the public light of day. Hence, 1, to explain; 2, to extract; and 3, to extract what is superfluous or objectionable.

Syn. Elucidate, Explain, Enucleate, Segregate.

Ant. Mystify, Obscure, Involve, Smuggle, Foist, Import, Confound."

It will not surprise any attentive reader of our older literature to be told that Horace's use of *eliminare* has been tentatively Anglicized.

"So settled, that, at no time . . . hee open himselfe, or suffer his tongue to eliminate any part of his thoughts." Daniel Tuvill, *Essays Politicke and Morall* (1608), fol. 114 v.

"Whatsoever it is that here we do is, by some that come hither, and write all they hear, presently eliminated, and carried to them, which hath caused many hard reports to pass of us, both with them and elsewhere." Rev. John Hales (1618), *Golden Remains* (1673), Part II., p. 64.

Elimination, to import 'unwarrantable disclosure,' 'indiscreet divulgence,' 'blabbing,' has also appeared in print:

"These curious quærees, and fabulous eliminations of hel's secrets, which S. John properly calleth the deepnes of Sathan," etc. Bp. William Barlow, *A Defence*, etc. (1601), p. 15.

The strictly etymological sense of *to eliminate*, recalled to mind by Dr. Young's affected "eliminate my spirit, give it range," and seen in the ensuing extract, may be of infrequent occurrence:

"For God's love, Madam, help you . . . to help to eliminate out of his house this offence," Abp. Matthew Parker (1567-8), *Correspondence*, etc. (1855), p. 314.

As to relevant quotations in which there is nothing either peculiar or objectionable, three will amply suffice:

"Its balsams, gums, resins, aromata, and all other bases of its sensible qualities, are, as is well known, mere excretions from the vegetable, eliminated, as lifeless, from the actual plant." S. T. Coleridge, *Literary Remains*, Vol. II (1836), p. 345.

"M. Comte's subjective synthesis consists only in eliminating from the sciences everything that he deems useless, and presenting, as far as possible, every theoretical investigation as the solution of a practical problem." J. S. Mill, *Auguste Comte and Positivism* (1865), p. 185.

"The most rigid Calvinist cannot eliminate his instincts." Mr. J. A. Froude, *Short Studies on Great Subjects*, First Series (1867), p. 339.

From among scores of authors who have misconceived the verb and the substantive under notice, it will be enough to cite a few who surely should have known better than to do so:

"The technical affixes employed in *eliminating* derivative from primitive words." Professor H. H. Wilson, *Sanskrit Grammar* (1841), Preface, p. vii.

"The Nature of the Soul is, also, conclusive; it being utterly impossible that such infinite ideas as God, eternity, space, extension, hope, and fear could ever be eliminated by either the will, the reason, or the finite evidence of the finite senses." *Foreign and Colonial Quarterly Review*, Vol. II (1843), p. 337.

"In answering these inquiries, we should have to consider separately every collateral influence and circumstance, and, by a most subtle analysis, to eliminate the real effect of art from the effects of the abuses with which it was associated." Mr. John Ruskin, *The Seven Lamps of Architecture* (1849), p. 201.

"Classification sets itself to the arrangement of all those bodies which meet its view, and are possessed of common qualities; and thus general ideas are eliminated." "It is gratifying to watch the progress of discovery, and to imagine that we are elaborating truths, or eliminating principles, from facts that are patent to our own observation." Dr. Samuel Neil, *The Elements of Rhetoric* (1854), pp. 23, 213.

"The various events by which one people [viz., the Jews] was eliminated from the varied

racess of mankind." Sir J. P. Wood (now Lord Hatherley), *The Continuity of Scripture* (1867), p. —.

"Let us construct our hypotheses for an hour, or a day, or for years; they are of the utmost value in the elimination of truth." Dr. Michael Faraday, in *Lectures on Education* (1854), p. 68.

A good number of my quotations from which those immediately preceding are selected have, I find, already been produced in Dr. W. B. Hodgson's *Errors in the Use of English*. Dr. Hodgson's researches and my own discover that *to eliminate* has wrongly had attached to it, with more or less distinctness, the various senses of *to bring out*, *develop*, *distinguish*, *educate*, *elaborate*, *elicit*, *elucidate*, *evolve*, *free*, and what not. Such has been the result of a mere weakness for a learned-looking expression, without inquiry touching its meaning; and it certainly behooves any one who would escape the suspicion that, science left out of consideration, he is not even a moderate Latinist, to take heed how he eliminates and what he subjects to elimination.

The Dictionaries, to which I once more return, are, by reason of their meagreness, and on other grounds, far from being satisfactory in their treatment of *to eliminate*, especially as employed in non-scientific language. Archdeacon Todd and Dr. Richardson have, between them, as authorities for it, only Dr. Young, the poet, as cited above, Bp. Lowth, and Lovelace, of which three the last, in his "thou . . . eliminat'st thy door," makes the word denote "to pass beyond"; an interpretation not likely to be questioned by any one who consults Dr. Latham. Where synonymized, as by Dr. O. W. Holmes, with 'to deduce,' 'to infer,' Dr. Webster's editors now correctly characterize it as "recent and improper," after having, in 1864, simply recorded it, without an accompanying note of censure.

Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, September 3, 1888.

—In the second column of your 152d page, l. 4, the printer has put "misusage" for "coinage." Among several other typographical errors in my letter on *Suppositions*, two more may be noticed. John Lawrence has "suppositious causes," not "cases." Again, for Vol. "XII," of the *Quarterly Review*, read "XIX."

Turning over a book published in 1854, I lately came across *supposititious* as a substitute for "suppositional," i. e., "hypothetical." *Suppositious* in the same sense, which is equally bad, is not very unusual in my experience of spoken English.

Notes.

A LIBRARY edition, 12mo, of Walter Besant's novels has been begun by the Messrs. Harper. The same firm have compressed the thirty-six volumes of John Morley's "English Men of Letters" series into twelve, making a "People's Edition."

D. Appleton & Co. will publish on November 1, 'On the Senses, Instincts, and Intelligence of Animals, with Special Reference to Insects,' an illustrated work by Sir John Lubbock.

Chas. Scribner's Sons have nearly ready the first volume of their 'Cyclopædia of Music and Musicians,' a work to be profusely illustrated, and printed only in a limited edition; a 'History of French Painting,' by Mrs. Clara H. Stranahan; and 'Gibraltar,' by the Rev. Henry M. Field.

'Musical Instruments and their Homes' is the title of a work announced by Dodd, Mead

& Co. The illustrations, which number nearly 300, with the accompanying description, form a complete illustrated catalogue of the remarkable collection of musical instruments now in the possession of Mrs. John Crosby Brown of New York. The text has been written by Mrs. Brown and Wm. Adams Brown. The book will be issued in sumptuous style.

'Pen and Ink Papers on Subjects of More or Less Importance,' by Brander Matthews; and 'B. C. 1887,' a volume of travels in British Columbia, by Messrs. Lees and Chutterback, authors of 'Three in Norway,' are in the press of Longmans, Green & Co.

'The Private Correspondence of Daniel O'Connell,' which we have already announced as on the eve of publication, in two volumes, by Longmans, Green & Co., consists chiefly of the hitherto unpublished letters of the "Liberator," abundantly annotated, and connected by only sufficient narrative to explain the occasion of them. Although called private, O'Connell's letters, even those to his wife, are chiefly on public topics.

White & Allen announce illustrated editions of 'Favorite Folk Ballads,' e. g., 'The Old Folks at Home,' 'Annie Laurie,' etc.; a sumptuous edition of Goldsmith's 'Poetical Works,' edited by Bolton Corney, with forty illustrations on Japan paper; and 'The Hottentot Blue Book; or, Smith and Schmidt in Africa,' by C. M. von Seyppel, the German antiquarian humorist.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a 'History of the Celebration of the 100th Anniversary of the Promulgation of the U. S. Constitution,' edited by Hampton L. Carson; a 'Life of Henry M. Stanley,' by the Rev. H. W. Little; a 'Memorial of Sarah Pugh,' one of the foremost and most respected anti-slavery women of Philadelphia; 'Paradoxes of a Philistine,' by Wm. S. Walsh; and 'The Writer's Handbook.'

Among the autumn announcements of Estes & Lauriat, Boston, are Keats's 'Endymion,' illustrated by W. St. John Harper; Tennyson's 'Fairy Lilies' and 'Bugle Song,' both illustrated by various American designers; 'Song Birds and Seasons,' illustrated; 'The Goupil Gallery of Photographs'; 'Recent Italian Art,' a portfolio of photo-etchings; and 'European Etchings,' twenty in number, with descriptive text.

Trübner of Strassburg, the publisher of Kluge's 'German Etymological Dictionary,' proposes to get the fourth edition out in time for the holiday trade. Seven of the ten parts have already reached us.

The second volume of Ten Brink's 'History of English Literature,' devoted mostly to Chaucer, is in press.

'The Case of Emperor Frederick III.,' embracing the official reports of the German physicians (translated) and of Sir Morell Mackenzie, and reviewed by Henry Schweig, M.D., of this city, will be published directly by Edgar S. Werner, 48 University Place.

Bismarck *non obstante*, Mr. S. Zickel, 19 Dey Street, New York, has reprinted from the *Deutsche Rundschau* the diary ('Aus Kaiser Friedrich's Tagebuch 1870-71') which has caused so much pother in Germany, and which, by reviving the memory of the late Emperor and renewing the popular affection for him, has made the present Emperor's absence from the country less felt—and his return, considering the persecutions going on in his name, perhaps less desired.

We praised last year on its appearance the 'Fifty Years of English Song' edited and arranged by Henry F. Randolph (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). This anthology of the Victorian era we found to be admirably selected and anno-

tated, and most carefully printed, as well as published in excellent taste. It has since been, with good reason, thought worthy of promotion into a large-paper edition in the same number of volumes (four), but with a limitation to 250 marketable copies. The result is an extremely dainty set, bound in boards covered with pale olive-green paper, and white label bearing the title in red and black. It is now both in better shape and in better season for holiday-giving than last year, and cannot fail to be appreciated.

The sixth volume of the 'Poetical Works of Robert Browning' (Macmillan) takes in the Dramatic Lyrics, and the longer "Luria," dedicated in 1846 to Lanier. The author says in a note that the majority of the poems, though often lyric in expression, are always dramatic in principle, and might properly enough come under the head of "Dramatic Pieces." The previous volume, it will be remembered, was designated "Dramatic Romances."

Nine pocket volumes, added to "Cassell's National Library" since we last kept the tally of it, embrace Shakspeare's "Merry Wives," "King Henry V.," and Part 2 of "King Henry IV.," Scott's "Marmion," Steele's "Essays and Tales," Defoe's "Tour through the Eastern Counties of England, 1721," Roger Ascham's "Schoolmaster," Fenelon's "Existence of God," and more of Plutarch's "Lives"—a fair image of the scope of this useful collection.

"Bohn's Select Library" (Scriffler & Welford) adds C. R. Kennedy's version of 'Demosthenes on the Crown,' and Pauli's 'Oliver Cromwell.'

With good literary, and we trust with good commercial, judgment, the Messrs. Putnam have added two-thirds of Leigh Hunt's 'Stories from the Italian Poets' to their convenient (and so to say) intimate "Nuggets Series." The Dante biographical sketch and annotated abstract of the 'Divine Comedy' fill one of the little volumes; the Tasso, Ariosto, and Pulci, another. This leaves out Boiardo, and the appendix of metrical examples and versions which the publishers are ready to make into a third volume if they receive the proper encouragement. Originally published in 1846, and the text of the Tractarian movement, the Dante portion was edited with a motive of helping to stem the Catholic reaction ("in a corner" of Newman and his associates. This furnished the "existing reasons" alluded to by Hunt in his preface, "why it is salutary to show that he [Dante] . . . must not have his barbarism confounded with his strength."

The London *Athenæum* for September 20 announces the speedy publication by the Cambridge University Press of an important work on the 'Divine Comedy' by Dr. Moore, Principal of St. Edmund Hall, Oxford. It will contain (1) a critical account of the text of the 'Divina Commedia'; (2) the collation of seventeen MSS. throughout the whole of the 'Inferno'; (3) the discussion of disputed readings of about 180 passages throughout the poem, which have been collated in about 250 MSS.; (4) appendices on families of MSS. and other subjects bearing on the textual criticism.

In the same number of the *Athenæum* Mr. William Davies suggests a special indebtedness of Milton to one Domenico Mantova, a Brescian *gentiluomo* and poet, whose *Rime* were published at Venice in 1554 as an appendix to the 'Rime di diversi eccellenti Autori Bresciani.' The correspondences cited do not seem to us very convincing, and no single line emerges which, in addition to the general cast of the sonnets, implies adaptation from the Italian

original. A marked disagreement must be admitted between

"Now that the fields are dark and ways are dreary," and

"Monte che chiostro è l'etel, pure è sereno."

That Milton got hints for his "Comus," and even the scheme of it, from George Peele's "Old Wives' Tale," is maintained by Peele's latest editor, Mr. Bullen, and his reviewer in the *Athenæum* of October 6.

Mr. John Gilmer Speed, of the well known Kentucky family, and author of a *Life of Keats*, his great uncle, has assumed the editorship of the *American Magazine*.

The October proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society opens with an account of a recent survey of Christmas Island, an uninhabited island in the Indian Ocean, remarkable because of its "coral covering." This is followed by a description, by the Shah of Persia, of a new lake, which appeared some six years ago, about thirty five miles south of Teheran. There is a tradition, to which the Shah refers, that it formerly existed, but disappeared on the birthday of the Prophet. According to the map, which is copied from that published in the Teheran gazette *Idra*, where the article originally appeared, the lake is about twenty-five miles long by five broad, and is estimated to be about thirty three feet deep. The water of the lake is brackish and bitter, but it is very clear and sparkling, and its color is blue. This number also contains Sir C. W. Wilson's address before the British Association on trade routes, in the course of which he calls attention to the fact that the steamers constructed for the Suez Canal route to the East "are quite unfitted for the voyage round the Cape," and that consequently the English carrying trade would be liable to paralysis in case the Canal was blocked by war or by accident. He spoke slightly of the probable effect of the Panama Canal upon commerce, even "when completed as a maritime canal, without locks." Mr. H. H. Johnston contributes a paper, accompanied by an unusually fine ethnographic map, on the "Bantu Borderland of Western Africa," the region extending from Old Calabar to the base of the Cameroons, and interesting from the number and variety of the languages spoken in it. Mr. Johnston has collected vocabularies of twenty three of the principal ones.

We have received the second livraison of Longman's *Atlas Historique de la France*, of which we noticed the first part some four years ago. The present instalment, like the last, consists of five plates—No. 6, containing nine small maps of France and its neighbors at various dates from 817 to 950, and Nos. 7 to 10, which together compose a magnificent map of Gaul in the tenth century. The nine small maps, with their succession of petty changes, present vividly to the eye the confusion in political relations which characterized the closing years of the Carolingian epoch. We are accustomed to reckon the division made at Verdun in 843 as practically establishing the boundaries of the kingdom of France, and in the long run it was so; but we learn from these maps that these territories were broken up in less than fifteen years, and it is not until the reign of Eudes, in 890, after several intervening changes, that we again find France with the dimensions of 843. The great map of the tenth century affords a no less interesting observation, as we learn from it (by a comparison with the maps of the earlier *l'irraison*) that the territorial divisions which Cesar found in existence, B. C. 58, continued without any essential changes until the full establishment of feudalism—subdivided from time to time, but with very few real changes of boundary. The

tribe of Cæsar became the *civitas* of Augustus, and this in its turn the *gau* (*pagus*) of the Frank Empire. It will be noted that the title of this map is not *France*, but *Gaul*. It is bounded by the Alps and the Rhone; it is divided into the large provinces of Lorraine, France, Burgundy, etc., and does not therefore show upon its face just what was under the rule of Hugh Capet, and what under his contemporaries of Germany and Burgundy. The province of Burgundy, for example, was divided between the kingdoms of France and Burgundy; but to see where the line ran, it is necessary to consult the small map in Plate vi. Plate ix. contains also a small map of the civil provinces, and another of ecclesiastical divisions. We still read the hopeful announcement that the parts will appear on an average one a year.

For the sixteenth time we have the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual,' with its catalogue of all the book-makers who choose to be represented in it (New York: Office of the *Publishers' Weekly*). In the nature of the case, the volume grows in bulk with the increase of the lists, and this year's seems the bulkiest of all. Its prime use is for the trade, but any book-purchaser can consult it with profit.

—How shall we say anything new of the 'Supplement to Poole's Index to Periodical Literature' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)? The same chief editor and assistant, the same unsalaried devotion, the same general scheme, the same indispensableness to the student, the same typographical proportions—what remains to tell of this addition to the 'Poole's Index' of 1882, covering the five years to January 1, 1887? In the first place, the scheme has been greatly enlarged—by taking on forty-six new associates and by indexing thirty-three sets of periodicals not existing before 1882, and twenty-eight older sets now first (at least completely) indexed. Hence the Supplement for five years fills 483 pages, or almost exactly one-third of the edition of 1882, an enormous ratio considering that the first edition of the 'Index' was published in 1848. It must needs be, too, that with the increase in the contributors the range of topics is multiplied, but this we cannot well prove. What is clear is, that the present mode of compilation, which is *current* and not *retrospective*, tends inevitably to multiply topics of immediate and more or less ephemeral interest, and to give the 'Index' the character of a "Conversation Lexicon," if we may use the expression—a key to "the vital questions of the day, in philosophy, social science, politics, and literature." We will instance two particulars: the chief books of the day are here indicated and enshrined in references to the leading reviews of them; and the death of any great man is signalized by grouping about his name the most striking obituary notices, etc. Spencer's 'Data of Ethics' and Tolstoi's works are examples of the first class; Darwin, Emerson, Longfellow, George Eliot, Grant, Wagner, D. G. Rossetti, of the second. Some of these personages, dead, require as much space in the Supplement as, living, in the previous 'Index'; some even more. Then there are topics which are wholly new, like Knights of Labor, Henry George, Tonquin, Home Rule, Blair Educational Bill; while old topics revive in force and receive greater absolute or relative attention, e. g., Nihilism, Socialism, Civil Service, Tariff, Copyright, Divorce, Electricity, Congo, Henry Irving (who now outstrips Washington Irving). Ireland fills four and a half pages against ten and a half in 1882, and remains one of the chief topics of the English-speaking race. Finally, and still leaving un-

said many things, it should be remarked that this work is a guide to books as well as to magazine articles; to the authors of books, also, and the "men of the day" in all walks of life; and measurably to the writers concerning both. All praise again to Mr. William F. Poole, Mr. William I. Fletcher, and the disinterested men and women who have combined to spin this clue to the wilderness of current thought; who never rest, but are daily toiling over the quarterly 'Co-operative Index' which furnished the substratum of the present Supplement, and which after five years will be gathered up into a volume like that before us.

—Mr. W. Howard White contributes to the *Railroad Gazette* of October 5 some very striking observations upon the ratio of population to railroad mileage in the United States. Beginning with the year 1850, prior to which time Mr. White considers railroad building as somewhat abnormal, there has been a very noticeable regularity in the decrease of this ratio. The number of inhabitants to each mile of railroad in 1850 was 2,571, while in 1887 this number was only 412; and the decrease has been so steady as to admit of representation by a curve which seems to be hyperbolic in character. There was a conspicuous interruption of the curve at the time of the civil war, and another after the panic of 1873, but its nature is not materially affected by these disturbances. Estimating the future increase of population on the basis of the past, the prolongation of the curve would indicate for 1890 a population of 396 to the mile of railroad, and the limit of the curve would be approximately reached in 1898, with a population per mile of 325. It would appear, therefore, that the normal rate of railroad building for the five years from 1885 to 1890 is about 8,000 miles a year, and that 9,000 miles would be in excess of the limit indicated by the curve. As there had been built nearly 21,000 miles at the beginning of the present year, it is clear that a halt must be called soon unless some new factor is to be introduced into the situation.

—To the satisfaction of its numerous well-wishers and the confusion of those who prophesied its early death, the *Journal of Morphology* enters upon the second year of its existence with the promise of two numbers besides the one just issued. This contains five papers, each excellent in its way, and representing as many distinct (and *strictly morphological*) subjects and modes of investigation. The editor follows up the paper in the previous number with a discussion of "the seat of formative and regenerative energy." Prof. Cope considers "the tri-tubercular molar in human dentition" from the standpoint of evolution and racial and comparative anatomy, and concludes that it "constitutes a reversion to the lemurs, and not to the anthropoid apes or to the monkeys proper." The shortest and the longest papers are Dr. Tuckerman's account of the "gustatory organs of a bat," a subject apparently but little investigated, and Dr. Patten's "Studies on the Eyes of Arthropods," which is not only good in itself, but accompanied by a remarkably complete "summary." Prof. Osborn's finely illustrated "Amphibian Brain Studies" is partly a digest of his previous publications, and partly an account of the "nerve-fibre courses," more especially those of the medulla oblongata of the "hell-bender," *Cryptobranchus*. There are also comparisons with the brains of the lamprey and the lung-fishes, Dipnoans. Notwithstanding some points which might be justly criticised, the paper as a whole is so instructive and suggestive as to occasion deep regret at the intimation on the opening page that the

author's labors in encephalic anatomy may not be nearly so continuous as they have been since 1879.

—The September-October number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* contains the conclusion of O. von Gebhardt's article, in which he endeavors to trace the history of the manuscripts discovered at Bobbio in 1494, by Merula. He finds as the result of his investigations that the twenty-five titles given in Merula's list represent fifteen separate manuscripts, of which seven are still preserved in various libraries, four have disappeared, but are represented either by manuscript copies or early printed editions, and four are completely lost. Max Harrwitz gives a list containing the titles and dates of the first works printed at some fifty places, ranging from the sixteenth to the eighteenth century, correcting, with much exultation, the dates given in the 'Dictionnaire de Géographie' of P. Deschamps, whose name, by the way, he misspells. In several instances, too, the corrector is himself in error; thus he commits the egregious blunder of giving 'Klopstock's Messiah,' attempted from the German by Jos. Collyer, 1795, as the title and the date of the first book printed in New York! And a reference to so common a handbook as Cotton's 'Typographical Gazetteer' would have furnished him with still earlier dates for Bergamo, Coburg, Danzig, Novara, etc. There is an interesting account of the sale of the late Karl Goedeke's library. The attendance was small, and as a result the prices, generally speaking, were low, many a literary rarity going for a mere song. Of the collection relating to the Reformation the major part was secured by the Hamburg Library. A. Keysser reports that he has discovered in the Cologne Library a copy of the printed fragment of Cornelius Loos's treatise 'De vera et falsa Magia,' the printing of which was stopped and the manuscript confiscated by the Inquisition. The fragment comprises the first eight sheets of the work, containing the preface and chapters 1-53 of the first book. The importance of this find would be much greater had not the original manuscript of the first two books been discovered in 1886, by Mr. G. L. Burr, in the city library of Treves, as was related in No. 1115 of the *Nation*.

FAY'S CONCORDANCE TO THE DIVINE COMEDY.

Concordance of the Divina Commedia. By Edward Allen Fay, Ph.D., Professor in the National Deaf-Mute College. 8vo, pp. vi, 819. Published for the Dante Society, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; London: Trübner & Co. 1888.

A SLIGHT comparison of Dr. Fay's Concordance of the 'Divine Comedy' with any one of the Italian or German compilations which have hitherto had to serve us in its stead, helps one to appreciate the admiration which Mariotti expresses for the English Concordances of Shakspeare and the Bible in his 'Dante e la statistica delle lingue.' Englishmen, he says with wonder, as if he were describing the invention of some new engine of war—Englishmen seem to have been induced to contrive concordances by a desire to find references rapidly; and he goes on to recommend that some diligent student of Dante should try to produce a similar marvel. A foreigner, however, has been the first to complete this most practical *Hilfsmittel* for the thousands who read and study Dante as a master, and still more for those whose pleasure it is to dissect

the 'Divine Comedy' in the most approved philological fashion.

It is strange that a concordance of the 'Divine Comedy,' a book of reference natural and necessary, as it seems to us, is really the last point in a long line of indices and vocabularies. To be sure, there has been a printed *rimario* since 1602—that of Carlo Noci, which, revised by Volpi in 1727, and reprinted by Le Monnier in 1853, is sufficiently well known. But, despite the fact that a *rimario* does not often give one a ready clue to the whereabouts of a word or passage, there was for a long time nothing better. From the fifteenth century there had been scattering attempts at compiling lists of proper names, obscure words, and the like; but the first printed matter of any value was Volpi's three clumsy 'Indici richissimi della Divina Commedia' (1727), which consisted of short biographical and critical notes and similar matter, alphabetically arranged under three inconvenient headings. In 1852 Blanc published his 'Vocabolario dantesco,' Carbone's translation of which (1856) is perhaps better known than the original. With this really valuable book, which contains a complete list of the words used in the 'Divine Comedy,' together with much well-arranged and usually accurate information of various kinds, progress ceases for some time. Castrogiovanni's 'Frasesologia poetica e dizionario generale della Divina Commedia' (1854) is a foolish and inaccurate phrase-book and anthology, designed chiefly for the inspiration of Sicilian youth; and Ferrazzi's 'Frasesologia' (1865), though surprisingly complete, is not even an approximation to a concordance. Bocci's 'Dizionario storico, ecc.' (1873), a small and rather rambling book with a very long title; Leacock's 'Biographical Guide to the Divine Comedy' (1874), and the fragment of Count Gaddi's 'Vocabolario enciclopedico dantesco' (1876), are mere fore-runners of Poletto's valuable 'Dizionario dantesco di quanto si contiene nelle opere di Dante Alighieri con richiami alla Somma teologica di S. Tommaso d' Aquino' (1885). But even this, crowded as it was with references and cross references, which in part took the place of a concordance, was by no means suited to do the full duties of one.

Meantime there had been attempts at actual concordances. De Battines mentions two that were never published, and a third, also unpublished, 'Indice completissimo di tutte le voci contenute nella Divina Commedia,' which was compiled in 1844 at the expense of Lord Vernon. In 1883 appeared a *saggio* of 'La Concordanza dantesca' of Signor F. Vassallo Paleologo of Girgenti. According to a recent article in the Neapolitan *Staffetta*, it would seem that the author had originally planned his work after the ordinary fashion of concordances, but that he was dissuaded by certain eminent advisers, who declared that a bare concordance would be uninteresting. What the public wanted was a book that could be read from one end to the other with pleasure—in other words, a concordance of some 2,000 pages, in which all words cited should be accompanied by a context of from five to twenty lines. The two small parts of the new work (1886), which Signor Vassallo-Paleologo has since published, are naturally ill-adapted for use, and they are, furthermore, not particularly accurate. Since 1886 no other parts have been published.

At last, however, thanks to the careful industry of Dr. Fay and to the generous interest and support of the Dante Society, we have a complete concordance to the 'Divine Comedy,' with 819 pages of text and some 44,000 refer-

ences. The text is Witte's, though such words of the Le Monnier editon as differ from Witte's are inserted in their proper places, and variants of either text in the citations are carefully noted. The method of citation is best shown by an example:

"ETERNA, del mondo. . . M'insegnavate come
Dionis' ferma. Inf. xv, 85."

Each word, *e. g.*, *buoni, buoni, buone, buoni*, is given in its proper place with the citations which go with it, and not under its theme word (*buoni*), although, in the case of the "shorter and commoner prepositions, prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions, and the more frequently recurring forms of the verbs *essere* and *avere*," the citations and references are omitted unless there is some noteworthy peculiarity in the use of the word in question, and *sorvente* is added in their stead, *e. g.*:

"Dry, Dry. Sorvente."

Whether this method of indexing is better than that of Blanc, who puts inflections and other forms under the theme form (*buoni, a, e, i* under *buono*) is still an open question. To the present writer it seems that it is not. One uses a concordance to find a passage from some word which serves as a clue, or else to see the various ways in which the author uses a word. In the first instance, it is just as easy to look for an inflectional form under the theme word; and, in the second instance, it is much more convenient to find all the inflectional forms under a single theme form.

It is curious, too, to note that in Dr. Fay's scheme no phrases are noticed. This is natural in most instances. *Ab antico* can be found from *antico* just as well as if it had been registered under *ab antico*; but to phrases such as *ad ora ad ora, a due a due*, one gets no clue whatever, for *ora* and *due* are both without citations (*sorvente*). This suggests a question as to the order in which a number of citations should be arranged. Dr. Fay has two rules:

"The first of these is the sense in which the reference word is used, for instance, under the word *cielo* are first grouped together the citations in which the word means sky; secondly, those in which it means heaven; thirdly, etc."

The other principle . . . is the alphabetical order of the words of the context most closely connected with the reference word. These are assumed to be, for a substantive, (1) the verbs of which it is the subject, (2) the verbs of which it is the object, and (3) the prepositions by which it is governed, for an adjective, etc."

But there some 170 entries under *cielo*, and there is nothing to show where one meaning of the word ends and another begins, nor does the second principle seem other than unnatural and inconvenient. The reader can test it for himself if he will look for a line under *donna*. Perhaps the wiser plan would have been to take no other rule than that of relative place in the poem. That would have the advantage of complete simplicity at least, and it might prove to be vastly more convenient for both the maker and the user of the concordance.

But these are minor points—points for Dr. Fay to consider, if he be brave enough to undertake another great task, a concordance to the minor works of Dante. Another point of the main scheme remains to be noticed, the attempt to denote by an asterisk "words and word forms, more or less unusual, used by Dante according to the best texts; only in the rhyme ending of the verse." By "words . . . used by Dante only in the rhyme ending," by the way, Dr. Fay probably means words that Dante uses only in the 'Divine Comedy,' for certain words which he stars are found elsewhere in Dante, *e. g.*, *Plato* is quite the ordinary form in the 'Convito.' This charge

against Dante, that he used strange or obscure words or forms *per grazia della rima*, is an old one. The oft-quoted statement of the 'Ottimo' is two-sided, and the somewhat similar remark attributed to Pietro di Dante should not have much authority with us. Nannucci was the first to defend Dante, and he did it fiercely. "Intorno alle voci usate da Dante secondo i commentatori in grazia della rima," 1840. Schneider (1862) tried to confute Nannucci; Zölle (1886) disproved much of Schneider, and Zingarelli (1884) has added new facts to the discussion. As a matter of fact, however, no one seems to know very much about the question. The text to all Dante's works has not yet been definitively settled, and we know as yet too little what his whole vocabulary really was. Nor has more been accomplished for the other documents which show what the written language was in the time of Dante. Until all this is known and much of it tabulated, there is little need of discussing the matter. It may be interesting, however, to notice that Schneider finds Dante guilty of breaking the rules of "good usage," if so pedantic and academical a phrase can be used for the loose freedom of the thirteenth century—in rhyming words and for the sake of the rhyme in some 580 instances, or in one line in every 21. Dr. Fay finds the same in about 540 instances, or in one line in every 28, or, throwing aside interchanges of *i* and *e* in verb endings, where Dante seems to have had a real choice as to which of two forms he would use, in 462 instances, *e. g.*, one line in every 35. To the writer, it seems that the list is still large. A further sifting, allowing Dante a good deal of freedom in the choice of words which show some slight phonetic or inflectional resemblance, would seem to reduce it to about 250 words, or, one straining for the rhyme in every 62 lines.

Still, it is an undoubted fact that many of the difficulties in the 'Divine Comedy' are due in one way or another to difficulties in the rhyme words; and whoever has the knowledge and the industry to undertake to investigate the matter thoroughly, will be a benefactor to all students of Dante. It is to be regretted that Dr. Fay did not leave the question still open by stating what tests he had applied to words before marking them as rare. Among the words marked with an obelisk as used only by Dante by which we understand Dr. Fay to mean only in the 'Divine Comedy' there are at least two which are also found in the 'Convito'—*sofetta*, in *Conv. iv*; *Cangone*, and *osano*, *osare*, *ibid. iv*, 28, and there are others which one might expect to find in other writers of the time. Nannucci gives a reference in *Fra Guittone* for *Aggrato*. A list of the words marked with an asterisk and of those marked with an obelisk would also be valuable as an appendix.

Of course, the Concordance brings out many facts as to Dante's vocabulary. Mariotti had already given us the number of words which he used in the 'Divine Comedy,' 5,800 to the 5,642 of the Latin Bible, the 8,000 of Milton, and the 15,000 of Shakspeare. The proportion of the adjectives to the nouns (1 to 3), the rare use of superlatives (there are only 17 in the whole poem, a mere fraction of the number in the 'Vita Nuova'), and other data which Mariotti gives, are all borne out by the Concordance. The immense importance of the verbs and the emphasis put on simple physical action are seen everywhere. *Incere* is used about 750 times, and *facere* and *volere* even oftener. It seems truer than ever that Dante's verse "holds itself erect by the mere force of the substantive and verb, without the help of a single epithet." The use of adjectives is sometimes very curious. *Buono* is used only 110 times, while

alto is found some thirty times more. It is just what one would have wished: *alto* is so much nearer the tone of the whole 'Commedia' than *buono*. And everywhere throughout the book there are half pages of lines which one reads with real pleasure, so significant is each fragment of the whole, so sharp is the light thrown on the recurring word in each set. One thinks involuntarily of a line of sword-points.

Dr. Fay has put on the title-page of his book the motto

"In che i gravi labor gli sono aggrati."

It well denotes the loving and accurate care with which he has performed his heavy task. His book—the first of its kind in centuries—is not for a day; full generations of lovers and students of Dante will place it on their shelves beside the 'Divina Commedia.'

AN INDIAN OFFICER.

Reynell Taylor, C.B.C.S.I. A Biography by E. Gambier Parry, author of 'Suakim, 1885,' etc. London: Kegan Paul & Co. 1888.

WHEN the British in India obtained possession of the Punjab, the duty also devolved upon them of administering a strip of territory which was not properly a part of the Punjab. This strip was known as the Trans-Indus frontier. It extended for a distance of about eight hundred miles, between the Peshawur Valley in the north and the city of Mooltan in the south, and was bounded on the east by the Indus, on the west by the Suleiman Mountains. About midway in this tract of territory lies the district of Bunnoo, a well-watered and beautiful valley, remarkable alike for the fertility of its soil and the profusion of fruits and roses which beautify the landscape. The inhabitants, however, of this lovely region did not exhibit in their lives and character the beauty of the scenery around them. A more ruffianly population than the Pathans of Bunnoo, when the British first occupied the valley, could with difficulty have been found on the surface of the globe. Their character may be inferred from a little anecdote which General Nicholson (the soldier who fell in the assault of Delhi in 1857) has recorded of a certain Bunnoochee child. Nicholson asked this child if he knew that it was wrong to kill people. The child responded that he knew it was wrong to kill with a knife or a sword. Why? "Because the blood left marks." This child had graduated early in the school of murder, considered as one of the fine arts. But though the Bunnoochees admitted in theory the superior excellence of an assassination which left no revealing traces behind it, the knife was the ordinary implement with which a man avenged his wrongs upon his fellowmen. He did not care for a fight in the open field.

"His idea," to quote General Reynell Taylor's own words, "of a successful field was—time, midnight, and a long-sought rival or enemy asleep under his vine in the open air; no witness but the moon, and leisure given for three well-planted blows of a small, broad-backed knife, which makes a deadly three-cornered wound like that of a bayonet, under which a man may live long enough to drink the full bitterness contained in the knowledge of his enemy's triumph."

The free use of this small, broad-backed knife during a long space of time had induced a state of things which made of every village in the valley of Bunnoo a walled and isolated fort, the inhabitants of which did not venture, except by stealth, to enter the streets of another even though it was situated in their immediate vicinity. "When," ran the Bunnoochee proverb, "a man enters a strange village, he takes the strut out of his walk." It was sel-

dom, however, that a man entered upon an enterprise so full of peril. Men passed from infancy to youth, from youth to old age and the grave, without in the whole course of their lives getting a mile or two beyond the walls of their native village. The valley was an incessant scene of bloodshed and murder. Village against village, chief against chief, the never-ending blood feuds were handed on from generation to generation. At the same time, the Bunnoochee was, in his own way, a profoundly religious man. He liked the practice of murder. He would, with absolute equanimity, swear away the life of another, from private spite or merely to oblige a friend; but during the season of Ramadan—the Mohammedan Easter—he was a scrupulous observer of the fast ordained by the Prophet.

"Before I close this letter," writes Nicholson to his friend Herbert Edwardes, "I must tell you of the last Bunnoochee murder, it is so horribly characteristic of the bloodthirstiness and bigotry of their disposition. The murderer killed his brother, and was brought in to me on a frightfully hot evening, looking dreadfully parched and exhausted. 'Why,' said I, 'is it possible you have walked in fasting on a day like this?' 'Thank God,' said he, 'I am a regular faster.' 'Why have you killed your brother?' 'I saw a fowl killed last night, and the sight of blood put the devil into me.' He had chopped up his brother, stood a long chase, and been marched in here; but he was keeping the fast."

The Bunnoochees, however, crouching behind their walled villages, were not the sole occupants of the valley. The mountains overlooking this village were the dwelling places of the Wazerees—a mountain tribe which presented, in their leading traits of character, a marked contrast to the Bunnoochee proper. They were as manly, brave, and truthful as the Bunnoochees were cowardly and treacherous. The difficulty of finding a subsistence in the hills had forced a considerable part of this tribe to migrate to the plains. The Bunnoochees made desperate efforts to expel the intruders. For this purpose, they even laid aside for a time their internal feuds. But the weak and dissolute denizens of the plain were no match for the hardy mountaineers, and the Bunnoochees, worsted in the field, resolved upon a peace tempered by assassination. This policy did not answer their expectations. The Wazerees retaliated with an energy and rapidity which speedily convinced the Bunnoochees that it was inexpedient to persist in it. The Wazerees were in consequence acknowledged as undisputed possessors of the lands which they had seized—about one-third of the valley. They looked upon the Bunnoochees with scorn, and the two races held altogether aloof the one from the other.

Such was the country and such were the people to which Reynell Taylor (the subject of Mr. Gambier Parry's biography) was sent at the age of twenty-five—a solitary Englishman, with instructions to substitute a reign of law for the system of violence, oppression, and murder which had hitherto prevailed. Reynell Taylor was one of a group of young officers whom Sir Henry Lawrence, the new chief administrator of the Punjab, had collected around himself. There was such a remarkable similarity of character in the men composing this group that a description of Reynell Taylor might, with a few trifling alterations, be accepted as a description of any one of them. They one and all possessed in a striking degree those traits of character which, among the wild tribes they were sent to civilize, were regarded as most admirable. Reynell Taylor, for example, was, from the physical point of view, a splendid specimen of humanity, a man perfectly fearless, a finished swordsman, a fine horse-

man, and a mighty hunter. In the martial exercises in which these Pathans of the frontier delighted, there was not, in all probability, to be found, throughout the district which he ruled, a man so expert as himself. And so it was with Herbert Edwardes, with John Nicholson, with Lumsden, and others of the group we have referred to. They were, one and all, hunters and fighters as well as rulers. They vindicated their right to rule by the splendor of their performances in the chase and the foray.

But they also possessed in common another, and, for the immediate work before them, an even more important characteristic. All Moslems are devout, in that the existence of an invisible world is an ever-present consciousness with them. "If God will" is the exclamation with which a Moslem enters upon all business whatsoever. "God be praised!" is the exclamation with which he invariably brings all business to a close. And Reynell Taylor, Herbert Edwardes, and others, like their master, Sir Henry Lawrence, were men of that evangelical type of Christianity which believes in special providences, which sees "the hand of God" in all things that it undertakes to do, and which stands, therefore, in very close spiritual affinity with the religious convictions of the earnest Moslem. Wherein these men differed from those over whom they were set to rule was all in favor of their right to do so—in the larger outlook born of western culture, in their respect for law, in their consideration for the weak and the poor. Reynell Taylor was a conspicuous example of these latter qualities. A man who shrank from no danger on a field of battle, he was gentleness itself in all the relations of peaceful life. The last act of his connection with the district of Bunnoo was to found and endow a Christian mission there; but the Bunnoochees had then learned to regard him as "the good angel," and were wont to say that if all British officials had resembled Taylor, they would have become Christians without the intervention of missionaries at all. In the volume before us, the story of Reynell Taylor's exploits in Bunnoo, and other of the wilder districts of British India, is told by Mr. Parry in a straightforward and readable manner, and a strange, eventful narrative it is. All that Trans-Indus frontier, which he and his companions found so full of violence and murder, can now be traversed by a solitary traveler with as much security as one of the streets of New York.

An Epigraphical Journey in Asia Minor.

By J. R. Sitlington Sterrett, Ph.D. [Papers of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Volume ii., 1883-1884.] Boston: Danrell & Upham. 1888.

THE delayed second volume of the Papers of the American School at Athens has now appeared, filling the gap in the series of four volumes. Of these volumes the first and fourth are occupied with eleven short papers, two of them on the inscriptions of Assos and Tralleis by Dr. Sterrett, one an important discussion of Greek Versification in Inscriptions by Prof. F. D. Allen, while six of the remaining eight describe theatres, temples, etc., in Athens or Thoricus. The second and third volumes are entirely the work of Dr. Sterrett, now of the University of Texas at Austin, and are wholly devoted to inscriptions. The third volume, which was reviewed in these columns not long ago, gave the inscriptions collected in the Wolfe Expedition to Asia Minor in 1885, while this second volume gives the inscriptions col-

lected in an epigraphical journey the year before.

Dr. Sterrett had already been initiated into epigraphical work in a journey in 1881 with W. M. Ramsay, the indefatigable explorer of Phrygia. As both desired to make further explorations in the fall of 1883, they agreed to go together so far as their plans would allow, starting from Tralles, on the Meander, not far from Ephesus. The first part of their route through Caria, across the southwestern corner of Phrygia, and as far as Isparta (Paris) in north Pisidia, was investigated both topographically and epigraphically by both Mr. Ramsay and Dr. Sterrett, it being agreed that all copies of inscriptions found should belong to Dr. Sterrett, while all road notes and rights of map should go to Mr. Ramsay. The maps in this volume, made by Kiepert, cover a large part of Northern Cappadocia, Galatia, and Southern Cappadocia, although the routes are also in part shown on the maps of Cilicia, Lycania, Pisidia, and Isauria which accompany Dr. Sterrett's other volume of the Wolfe Expedition. These new maps, quite reconstructing what was before imperfectly known, are of prime importance, and will control the cartography of the region until scientific surveys are made.

Inscriptions are not generally very inspiring reading, even to the specialist. The collecting of them requires great physical endurance, great patience, much experience, and a quick eye. What an epigrapher should not be is indicated, but not stated, in the notes in Nos. 38-57, many of which inscriptions had been previously copied and published in the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique*, by MM. Collignon and Duchesne of the French School at Athens. Their readings are proved by Ramsay and Sterrett to have been hasty and careless, omitting not only letters, the beginning and end of lines, even whole lines (pp. 41, 56), but also entire inscriptions—thus saying of one square cippus (p. 101) that it is "inscribed on two sides," when, in fact, it has long inscriptions, quite legible, on all four sides. This is not the only case of such blunders; an equally bad one is noted on page 133, where, in addition to omitting one of the inscriptions on a stone, they make a blunder of fifty years in the date, by supposing the Thyratic era to begin 25 B. C., instead of 25 A. D. It is of great importance that such work be thoroughly done, as archaeologists are naturally indisposed to go over a territory which it might fairly be supposed had been recently explored by other scholars. The work of French explorers in Asia Minor during the last ten years has shown too much of this hurried and imperfect character. It is much better to take a small district and do it thoroughly. Indeed, the present trip of Dr. Sterrett covers more ground than could be fully explored, and his expedition the next year shows that he had partly learned this lesson.

Among the geographical results obtained we can mention the settling of the location of a dozen ancient towns by epigraphic evidence. Of these the most important is Tavium, fixed at Nefezkient. The value of this discovery is seen in the fact that seven Roman roads diverged from this Tavium, and the settlement of its locality fixes many other places. The first milestone on one of these roads was found at Nefezkient. Among other places located by epigraphic proof we notice Heraclea (No. 14), Sebastopolis (No. 25), Antioch in Pisidia (No. 92), Hadrianapolis approximately (No. 169), Pappa (Nos. 175-177), Sarrumena and Sobagena, also Mount Prien and the River Korax (Nos. 352-354). The long series of Roman mile-stones in the Trans-Anatolian region, beginning with

No. 269, are of prime importance for the history of the country under the Romans. They locate the Roman roads between Comana Amra and Melitene, and prove that Melitene was the starting point of the roads in Eastern Cappadocia, and consequently a provincial capital under the Romans. This is a surprising fact, for, considering the great religious and political importance of Comana, one would naturally have expected to find Comana the starting point of the Roman roads. These mile-stones give the names of the governors of the provinces, and of the emperors under whom they ruled; and it is not uncommon to find three inscriptions, one over another, on the same surface, made by successive governors who repaired the roads, the whole three being decipherable by a skilled epigrapher.

Among the more curious points brought out, we may mention that No. 21 shows descent reckoned from the mother, and possibly suggests the survival of a primitive family system among the Lydians. But this would require more evidence, as we know of cases among the Armenians of Asia Minor in which little *peutes*, named after an ancestress of mark or wealth, have grown up within a few generations. The "Pisidian gods," whoever they may be, come to light in Nos. 28-30, being invoked to punish any one who shall injure the monuments. These inscriptions also show a peculiar syntax, the dual for the plural, but not so strange as the syntax of another inscription (No. 20) in which the nominative, genitive, and accusative are all used in the same sentence after *en*. But this is no more than might be expected in a region where we find untranslatable Phrygian inscriptions. Nos. 47, 186, Nos. 56-58 give us more of the oracles used in astragalomancy, of which we have a portion in the volume of the Wolfe Expedition. Five dice were thrown. We translate a single oracle:

"Arise, three threes, and a six."

"The time is not yet favorable, but rest and make no vain attempt."

"And be not like the lilies that bring forth blind cubs."

"But plan a season of repose, and God shall give you guidance."

Nos. 243 and 245 are curious riddles; but as Dr. Sterrett gives them on the authority of a Greek physician who professed to have copied them, we shall hold them open to suspicion. Nos. 379 and 380 are interesting, as giving us further knowledge of the *Chus Julius Philippius* under whom Polyarp suffered martyrdom.

The volume leaves just one thing greatly to be desired. Dr. Sterrett took with him as photographer Mr. J. H. Haynes who made several hundred pictures of ruins and scenery. There are not a few of these inscriptions that would have been much elucidated by the pictures that belong with them. We presume it is the expense that has prevented giving views of the wonderful volcanic cones, honeycombed with tragically dwellings. Some of the most desirable of these pictures, however, like the so-called Hittite sculptures of Eynk or the splendid Seldjuk remains at Sultan Khan, hardly belong to the zone of antiquity discussed in this volume. If Dr. Sterrett could publish a selection of these pictures in an atlas, they would have a special archaeological and artistic value.

Kiepert's labor on the maps, and Hirschfeld's long review of Dr. Sterrett's former volume, which has appeared in the *Göttingische Gelehrte Anzeigen* since our own notice was published, show the value put on our countryman's work by the two best German authorities on Asia Minor. It is greatly to be regretted that

he was compelled to leave this important work unfinished so far, and in which one is the sole American representative to seek remunerative employment. Miss Wolfe, by the gift of a thousand dollars, added the fruits of a year's labor. The explanations in this volume were added to the extent of a hundred and fifty dollars by a gift from gentlemen in Boston, but the expedition cost Dr. Sterrett personally more than ten times that amount. The men who are willing and competent to make original investigations are so rare that it is a serious loss to the reputation of American scholarship if the lack of some means to supply the necessary funds compels them to waste such special talents and training at the teacher's desk.

Pharpos: Being the Second Book of the famous History of Herodotus. Translated by E. Rieu, 1884. Edited by Andrew Lang. London: David Nutt. 1888. 250 pp. 5s. net.

As early as the time of Xenophanes, Herodotus was perceived and recognized as an accurate story teller, and Aristotle's criticism with some contempt, a recorder of myths or popular tales. The second book, which sketches the life and manners of the Egyptians, their religious and political and social portions of their history, is full of legends which floated on the current of the Nile in the fifth century B. C. The blindness of Pharaoh, and his cure by the magic efficacy of virginity, the golden gift which Hiramsonius won from Isis in the underworld, the treasure of the same monarch, and the consummate knavery of the thievish master builder and his sons, which reappear in Greece and Rome, as well as in the Arabian story of Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves, the strange legend of Helen in Egypt, the marvel of the Phoenix, the tragic tale of the daughter of Mycetes, and the device by which, to cheat the oracle, he turned day into night and doubled his allotted span of years—these are many more excellent examples of folk-lore, whether Egyptian or foreign, whether detected in the making or arrested on that mysterious pilgrimage from land to land which so puzzles and baffles the antiquarian. For the reason, and for its use, out of the religion of the earliest civilization in the world, Mr. Lang has chosen the *Pharpos* to form one of the series which he is editing, and which began with Vergil's "Popular Tales."

The introduction discusses the religion of Herodotus and the question of his good faith. The latter, as we have intimated, was impugned early and often, not only in set treatises, but by casual sceptics who were too prudent to verify the facts of the historian or to heed his cautions. The capture of criticism went so far that while Juvenal takes the canal of Xerxes for a Greek lie, Pliny accords to the Phoenix the honor of a grave and scientific description. Mr. Lang's essay deals chiefly with certain charges recently made by Professor Sayce in his edition of the first three books of Herodotus, entitled "Ancient Empires of the East." These charges are very serious and, indeed, fundamental. "Plagiarism," "affectation of knowledge," "deliberate deception," "flagrant literary dishonesty and perversion," are some of the phrases with which the learned professor browbeats the unanswerable shade of Herodotus. If they are proved, we ought to say goodbye to the "Father of History."

But, in the first place, Professor Sayce's manner does not beget confidence. He is very positive, there are no shades or degrees in his knowledge; he states matters of pure conjecture for matters of fact. He knows just where

Herodotus falsified, just where his notebook failed him, where his "dragomen" deluded him. If Herodotus withholds the name of Osiris, apparently from motives of reverential awe, it is really because he was hiding his ignorance; if he does not mention Sophocles, it is "because he had not learned him at school." These whimsical speculations, which are worth propounding as after-dinner paradoxes, are answered by Mr. Lang with a patience and urbanity which they hardly deserve. Historians like Grote and Curtius, and editors like Stein, have no such verdict to give of the character of Herodotus; indeed, he carries his own credentials. His careful readers generally become his friends. They are won by his large and humane spirit, his simplicity and good sense, his diligent curiosity, and the love of truth that is transparent through his narrative. Nowhere can they discover the shifty, vainglorious, dishonest personage, half knave and half dupe, whom Professor Sayce detects in the first three books, and who, he strangely enough admits, may be trustworthy in his history of the Persian invasion.

When we come to details, it is to be noted that the Egyptologist criticizes as history what our author expressly gives out as current tradition. "I am telling you here," he says in the 'Euterpe,' "what was told to me. Let every man adopt what seems credible to him. It is my purpose throughout my work to record what I heard from my several informants"; and this warning, given in general, he repeats from time to time, by one sign-post or another, with the most conscientious frankness and assiduity. This means, of course, that he was not professing to give history, in a strict sense: he was observing manners and customs and collecting traditions; he was doing, in fact, all that could be expected of a highly intelligent and painstaking traveller, who visits many countries without a knowledge of their language, and without access to original documents and inscriptions. The tools of later research, of the linguist and the archaeologist, were not in his hands. No man was ready at that time to write a scientific history of the East or of Egypt. As Professor Maspero justly remarks of the 'Euterpe':

"He was not writing a history of Egypt. Indeed, with the best of opportunities, he could have given us only a few lists of dynasties, and have taught us nothing more than the original texts teach us to-day. On the other hand, we should have lost those marvellous narratives, with their occasional broad naïveté, which he has so charmingly repeated to us, on the faith of his guides. We should not have known Phœon, nor Proteus, nor Rhœpsinitus; and this, I believe, would have been a great loss. The monuments tell us, or will some day tell us, what was done by the Ramesses, the Thothmes, and the Cheops of the real world. Herodotus lets us know what was the common talk concerning them in the streets of Memphis."

The curiosity of Herodotus, to whom no trait of human nature was uninteresting, was keener, perhaps, in matters of religion than in any other subject. By training, and probably by inheritance, he was learned in mysteries and oracles and ritual. He easily identifies certain duties and rites of the Egyptians with those of his own country, and naturally concludes that they were borrowed from the oldest civilization known to him. "The hypothesis of borrowing," says Mr. Lang, "has always been a favorite with the learned." It must, of course, still be admitted, in cases where it is supported by sufficient reasons. Unquestionably, Adonis, and Aphrodite as a goddess of the sea, came from the Phœnicians; nor can we refuse the unsophisticated evidence of the Homeric hymns, and of early poetic legend sustained

by historic probabilities, that the worship of Dionysus and Demeter and Apollo was imported at some early period. When, however, we widen our circle of facts and resemblances beyond those known to Herodotus, when we find, for instance, the rites of the Aztecs and the Zunis strikingly similar to those of Babylon and Egypt—we are driven to the theory which Mr. Lang has fortified in his 'Myth, Ritual, and Religion,' and which we have already discussed in reviewing that work.

The present edition of the 'Euterpe' is limited to 500 copies. The material and make-up of the volume, like that of the 'Cupid and Psyche' which preceded it, is as harmonious and attractive as a bit of rare old china. The translation chosen by Mr. Lang, with his delicate sense of literary fitness, was first printed in 1584. The translator is unknown, though the initials B. R. may stand for Barnaby Rich. He abounds in racy colloquialisms, such as, "to serve with the same sauce," "in a bad box," "I'll pipe ye such a dance," "as true as the man in the moon." His work entirely absolves itself from all care and burden of exact scholarship. He revels especially in a good story, and tells it with a delicious freedom which sometimes amounts to entire independence of the author. Compared with his slang and exuberant loquacity, the Ionic grace of Herodotus shows severely simple. But his ease and vigor and the antique flavor of his vocabulary smack of Mandeville and Marco Polo, and match to a nicety that enchanted dawn of travel and discovery which will never more return so long as Kiepert and the ordnance-maps endure.

Historical Review of the Legislative Systems Operative in Ireland, from the Invasion of Henry II. to the Union. By the Rt. Hon. J. T. Ball, LL.D., D.C.L. Longmans, Green & Co.

THIS terse, able, and calmly written book is purely retrospective. The author eschews all reference to present politics. None the less is it a valuable contribution towards the formation of clear views regarding the settlement of the Irish question. We are not aware of any other work in which the history of the legislative systems operative in Ireland is so clearly traced. We see that probably before, and certainly after, the time of King John, legislative assemblies (under the name at first of councils and afterwards of Parliaments) were convened by the Kings of England in Ireland. Originally all who attended them were personally summoned. In the reign of Edward I. counties were empowered to send representatives. A similar privilege was soon after extended to some cities and towns. The number of counties, cities, and towns thus privileged increased along with the extension of English rule. Originally the members of these assemblies met and deliberated together. At a later date they divided into two houses. The development of the representative principle was slow and imperfect. Until the reign of Henry VIII. the natives were practically excluded; until the reign of Elizabeth neither Ulster nor Connaught enjoyed more than occasional representation, and then only to the extent of two members in the case of the former, and four of the latter. The Commons in the Parliament of James I. (called in 1615) were increased by 100 members. No qualifications of race were required from either electors or elected. The inhabitants of the kingdom were, without distinction, nominally at least, "taken into his Majesty's gracious protection." The constitution of the Irish Parliament was then a counterpart of the English. Its capacity of

action was very different. It was subject to the restraints of Poyning's law, under which the approval of the Privy Councils of Ireland and England were necessary before it could pass any valid enactment. It was also checked in its action by the assumption of authority on the part of its English rival to legislate for Ireland.

Under the Commonwealth no legislative assembly met in Ireland. We have germs of the idea of union in there being a certain number of members called by Cromwell to his Parliament. Under Charles I. and under William III. and Anne, the English Parliament in express terms legislated for Ireland over the heads of the Irish Parliament. After the union with Scotland, the Parliament of Great Britain distinctly declared that it had full power and authority to bind the kingdom and people of Ireland. From the Restoration, therefore, the legislative system operative in Ireland was basely subservient to the English in all that concerned the welfare of the Irish people. It was, in the words of Grattan, "a squabbling, fretful sectary, perplexing her little wits, and firing her furious statutes with bigotry, sophistry, disabilities, and death."

Mr. Ball traces the growth of the spirit of independence in Ireland through Molyneux and Swift, the life of the Volunteers, and the establishment of Parliamentary independence under Grattan in 1782. He marks the course of events and tendencies which culminated in the union, and impartially gives the arguments for and against that measure. It is difficult to rise from this portion of the work without being impressed with the faults and failings of the Constitution of 1782. It did not stand, because it could not stand; much less could it have stood the increasing complications and closer pressure of later years. Unless Irish statesmen had shown a clearer appreciation of the situation than they did between 1782 and 1800, especially upon such occasions as the discussion of Orde's commercial propositions, a closer and more workable relation between the countries, if not effected by bribery in 1800, would have been effected by force later on. It is impossible to turn over the pages of this book without believing that Pitt and Castlereagh and Cornwallis acted with a sincere belief that their Union would ameliorate and elevate the condition of Ireland. If the experience of eighteen years brought to light the flaws in Grattan's Constitution, so has the experience of eighty-eight years (whose history is outside the scope of Mr. Ball's book) proved the weakness of Pitt's Union. Let us hope that whatever rearrangement of the relations between the countries the future has in store will prove of a happier and more permanent character.

Mr. Ball appears to us too hard upon the character and doings of James H.'s Irish Parliament. It appears to us to have been broader and fairer in its spirit towards all classes of the community than those which succeeded it under the houses of Orange and Hanover. To Irishmen there must be touches full of deep pathos in every book relating to the history and constitutions of their country. In happier times to come, they will perhaps be able to read with greater equanimity than can Irishmen of the present day such passages as those which occur in one of Grattan's speeches given at considerable length by Mr. Ball, when he dwells with fervor upon the then position and glories of Ireland: "You [the Irish Parliament] are the greatest political assembly in the world; you are at the head of an immense army; nor do we only possess an unconquerable force, but a certain unquenchable pub-

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